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ABSTRACT

Volume 3 includes the following: "Comparison of Computer and Audio Teleconferencing" (Norman Coombs); "Intellectual Suppression" [book review] (Roger Boshier). Contents of volume 4 are as follows: "Straight Time and Standard Brand Adult Education" (John Ohliger); "Comparison of Folk High Schools in Denmark, and East and West Germany" (Robert Wendel); "Descriptive Appraisal of Functional Literacy in Nigeria" (Muyiwa Igbalajobi, Ayodele Fajonyomi); "Intentional Changes" [book review] (David Price). Articles in volume 5, number 1 are as follows: "Community Adult Education in America" (Michael Galbraith, David Price); "Community Adult Education in Developing Countries" (Linda Ziegahn); "Facilitated Community Development in a Rural Area" (Allen B. Moore, Mary Anne Lahey); and "Envisioning a Sustainable Society" [book review] (Daniel V. Eastmond). Volume 5, number 2 includes the following: "Technology in the Classroom of the Future" (Wayne Hartschuh); "Model Building and Strategic Planning in Continuing Higher Education" (Paul J. Edelson); and "Culture Wars" [book review] (Michael E. Ehringhaus). Volume 6, number 1 has the following articles: "Characteristics of Adult Education Students and the Factors which Determine Course and Program Completion" (Mary F. Sheets); "Working toward More Effective Adult Christian Education" (Robert C. Ballance); and "In a Different Voice" [book review] (Susan Slusarski). Contents of volume 6, number 2 are as follows: "Customer Satisfaction Studies" (James A. Farmer, Jr. et al.); "Bringing the Partners together in Workplace Literacy" (M. C. Taylor et al.); and "Killing the Spirit: Higher Education in America" [book review] (Terrence R. Redding). Volume 7 includes these articles: "Radical Adult Education with Older Persons" (Eric Friedrich); "Theory-Based Practice" (John L. Lewis, Barbara K. Mullins); "The Need for Continuing Education for the Deaf" (Kimberly A. Townsend); and "Towards an Anti-Racist, Feminist Teaching Method" (Tania Das Gupta). (SK)

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Volume 3 Number 1 Fall 1989

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N E W H O R I Z O N S IN A D U L T E D U C A T I O N

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NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION
Volume 3, Number 12/89, Fall 1989

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COMPARISON OF COMPUTER AND AUDIO TELECONFERENCING: ONE INSTRUCTOR'S VIEW

by

Norman Coombs

ABSTRACT: Telecommunications has opened up the possibility of personal and group communications for distance education. Both computer and audio conferencing permit the introduction of class discussions without the group needing to meet face to face. Phone calls and electronic mail can replace personal office visits. The distance learner can now have almost all the means of contact and interaction as the student on campus. Adult learners are often distant learners, and these enhancements have special meaning for adult education.

The following discussion compares the use of computer and audio conferencing with distant adult students. There are a variety of systems for both computer and audio interaction. This article discusses a comparison of these two particular systems and also a comparison of the teaching styles, within these two instructional mediums, of a particular instructor. The comparison is limited by these particularities, but it does point in the direction of the usefulness of these systems for enriching present distance education.

Introduction

The Rochester Institute of Technology (RIT) has been experimenting with ways to bring a more interactive component into the delivery of its telecourses, courses which are primarily aimed at an adult learning

audience. Broadcast video is a one-way presentation, and the US mail is less than ideal for facilitating fast and easy interaction between student and instructor. Unless one rushes to meet mail pick-up schedules, sending a letter and getting a reply may take five to seven days. The telephone, of course, is easily accessible, but using it can lead to the frustrating game of telephone tag. Even with the use of answering machines, a teacher can return a call only to find that the student has a machine too. However, even when they function well, mail and phone only provide one-to-one communication, still leaving out the benefits of group interaction. RIT has purchased both audio and computer teleconferencing systems and introduced them into some of its telecourses in order to augment the courses with more group interaction.

Since 1986 I have been using a computer teleconference to conduct class discussions in a telecourse on Modern American History. This is a lower division course that fulfills the Institute's liberal arts history requirement. While it is part of the degree requirement, most of the students are enrolled in the College of Continuing Education (CCE) and are older and more mature than the typical undergraduate. In the fall of 1988 I conducted the class discussion for an upper division Black History class using a telephone conference. The course was provided for a satellite campus whose students were working adults returning for further education financed by their employers.

There are variety of computer and audio conference systems, and each can be configured in many different ways. This means that making any kind of comparison between the two is, in fact, only a comparison of the particular configuration in which they were used. Therefore, a comparison has limited value because there are so many possible variables to consider. For this reason, the following is part discussion and part study based on (a) a personal reflection of my experiences with these two instructional systems and (b) a questionnaire given to students in two different classes. First, I describe the use of computer conferencing in teaching Modern American History. Second, I outline how audio conferencing facilitated class discussion in a course on Black History. Finally, from the professor's point of view, I compare these two experiences and attempt to draw some larger, more general, conclusions.

Functioning Of Computer Conferencing

At RIT Modern American History is a 4-credit course taught in the framework of a 10-week quarter. It is taught both in day school and through the College of Continuing Education. Most of the CCE students work in the greater Rochester area and take courses in the evening. Many have come to like telecourses as they reduce the time lost in commuting from

home to work, to RIT, and back home again. However, many of the students miss the regular contact with their teacher as well as being able to learn from their peers through interaction. Computer conferencing can provide some of what is missing.

The content of the course is delivered through text readings and watching broadcast video. Even when broadcast times are inconvenient, almost all students have access to a VCR. Not only can they work from home, but they can determine their own study schedule. Computer conferencing and electronic mail have been integrated into the delivery of the course and provide the missing interactivity. Because both are essentially asynchronous, they continue to leave the student in charge of setting his or her own work times.

RIT has purchased Notes, a computer conference system produced by the Digital Equipment Corporation (DEC) and runs it on a DEC VAX mainframe computer. All RIT students have the right to obtain a free computer account on the RIT VAX system. Those students in the Modern America History course who have access to a personal computer (PC) at home or work can use a modem and phone line to connect to the RIT VAX and to use Notes to correspond with the teacher and fellow students. Those without the use of a PC have to commute to RIT to access the VAX, but they only need to do that once a week and can still select the time most convenient for them.

Fortunately, I have easy access to the system both from a PC at work and from another at home. I look in on the conference many times every day. Usually, this only takes a minute or two at a time, but it means that I can respond to electronic mail (email) almost immediately and add my own contributions to the conference discussion quite easily. Even with a class of 40 students, I find I get to know people's names and something about their personalities better than those students I might have in a classroom.

Interactivity Via Computer Conferencing

In a computer conference everyone is perceived on a similar basis. The conference provides an unusually democratic setting, which is very interesting from the teacher's viewpoint. The relative anonymity of the conference also creates a surprising openness and frankness; students seem to share more freely and personally. In addition, the computer conference system provides a way to check on the students' understanding of the material and becomes an easy and natural means to relate that material to life and to share personal views and experiences. In this way, the material is less dry and academic.

In order to check the quality of the learning experience in the course on modern history, I deliberately used many of the identical materials in a day class and administered to both groups--day course students and computer

conference students--the identical multiple choice exams. Student grades in both sections were very similar. In fact, there was some evidence that the CCE teleconferencing students scored better. This may be explained by other factors than the delivery system alone. These CCE students, for instance, tended to be older and more mature. I do believe, however, that the computer component may frighten away students who are insecure and below average in certain basic skills. In any case, I am convinced that the technology functions well as an educational delivery system.

Many of the students expressed their satisfaction with the course. One said he would never take another telecourse without the computer component. He valued the opportunity of comparing his progress with that of his peers. Others shared how much they valued being able to work at their own pace. Another man specifically noted that he liked a computer discussion because he could speak his mind more openly; apparently his friends had become tired of his reactionary views and stopped discussing issues with him. One of the few complaints, however, was from a young man who said the system would be good for someone with more self discipline than he had.

In a questionnaire given to the first pilot group of students, the students said that they found the teacher very accessible. They rated teacher accessibility 4.8 on a 5-point scale. This contrasted to trying to locate teachers in their offices either with personal visits or by phoning. These students said they found sharing in a computer conference very easy and often less intimidating than sharing in a traditional classroom setting. In comparing computer conferencing to a face-to-face situation, they rated the teleconference class 4.2 on a 5-point scale. To my surprise, one student even commended me on my upbeat personality. Aside from the personal flattery, it is important to note that personality can be conveyed by text displayed on a computer monitor. The questionnaire asked which item contributed most to a sense of personal rapport, and electronic mail rated the highest. I found it easy--and not time consuming--to send very short, but frequent, mail to individuals. I tried to send a two- or three-line electronic mail message weekly to each member of the class.

Another surprise benefit of the computer conferencing system was its ability to transcend the barriers of physical disabilities. One female student, for example, was deaf. Our instructional videos were captioned. In addition, because the classroom conversation is viewed on a computer screen, the discussion did not necessitate any interpreting. One complication, however, is the fact that I, the teacher, am totally blind. I use a PC and speech synthesizer. This system, though, provided perfect mainstreaming; our handicaps became invisible. This is not the place to discuss the barriers of physical disabilities in relation to computer conferences and distance education, but it is important to note certain technological adaptations and possibilities.

Functioning Of Audio Conferencing

The use of a telephone conference in teaching Black History was within a very different environment. RIT had a satellite campus 150 miles away. Students who were working for several companies near Jamestown, NY were also working for an engineering degree during the evenings. Some courses were taught by adjunct professors living in and near Jamestown, some classes were taught by RIT professors who commuted, and other classes were taught through various distance education technologies. The students did not have as much voice in selecting their courses as they would have liked; the course selection was often determined by which professor was willing to teach a course. Black History was not, however, a top selection for most of the class, a fact that created an extra challenge over and above that of teaching at a distance.

The content of the course, like that of the telecourse, was acquired by the students through reading texts and watching videos. This time, however, the video was shown in class, which meant the students not only had to come to the Jamestown campus, they also lost any scheduling flexibility. The audio conference was designed so that the students were in one room in Jamestown while I was at the other end of the phone line in Rochester. This meant, therefore, that there was a fixed time for the class discussion. Both the students and I felt the discussion component was important. Because the course dealt with the Civil Rights Movement since World War II and contained considerable amounts of controversial material, it was natural to want to discuss the material, share opinions, and ask for further clarification on many of the issues. The videos and texts, by themselves, would have been inadequate to provide a meaningful learning experience.

Using an audio conference system to lead a class discussion turned out to be one of the toughest teaching assignments I have undertaken. Leading a discussion always requires the ability to hold several strands of thought in one's mind simultaneously. The teacher has to remember the question asked and, at the same time, try to listen to the answer and see how well it relates to the question. Where an answer falls short, the teacher must quickly phrase another question to elicit additional information, remember where he or she wants to lead the general discussion, and, at the same time, plot how to get there. I found that, adding to this necessary complexity, the problems inherent in the technology pushed me to the limit. Physically, I had to handle the phone equipment, shuffle notes on my desk, and, at the same time, engage in the previously described mental balancing act.

In a classroom, a period of silence while waiting for a student's response or while phrasing a question of my own is not distracting. However, I found silences on the phone upsetting. There had been occasions

when we lost the telephone connection, so any period of silence made me

fear that we had been disconnected again. This put pressure on me to respond quickly, and I found I became rattled when there were silences from the other end. The system we were using worked through a phone bridge that could handle several lines simultaneously. On occasion, a student would call our bridge from home instead of attending the class in Jamestown. Our system is half duplex, meaning that when one person speaks, the input from other phones is cut off. In other words, when I am speaking, I hear nothing from the classroom. On one hand, this reduced distractions. On the other hand, however, it left me with a feeling of powerlessness: I would wonder what the students were doing while I was talking. I had no way of knowing if they were quietly and attentively listening or if they were ignoring me and chatting with each other.

Interactivity Via Audio Conferencing

In terms of student responses to questions, the audio conference seemed stilted. When I asked a general question, there was no way for a student to indicate that he or she wanted to respond. Since raising a hand would serve little purpose, given the medium, I had to wait for someone to speak up. Students tended to be shy of responding in such an assertive way. In addition, I could not single out students for reactions by noting their alertness, so I had to randomly call on them by name. This approach meant that I often called on students who were not prepared or had nothing to say at that point. While this might serve to wake them up, it did nothing to facilitate vital group discussions. However, as far as I could tell, these things bothered me far more than they did the class members.

The Black History class involved almost 40 students. I split them into two discussion groups, fearing that 40 would be difficult to handle by phone. I hoped that I would develop more personal contact with individuals in smaller groups. However, because I was relating to them as a group, I still found it difficult to create personal rapport. There was no way to have office meetings with individual students. Obviously, students could call me by phone and chat one-to-one, but this required their paying for a long distance phone call. While long distance telephone calls happened occasionally, it was quite rare.

The students found the video and readings far more challenging and interesting than they had expected. I worked hard to make the discussion relevant and interesting. They said they liked the course more than they had expected. I felt that the discussions functioned rather well in spite of the difficulties. However, as I indicated, I had to prepare for them more carefully and thoroughly than for a normal class. While the audio conference functioned as a classroom substitute, I found it took more work and preparation on my part. Certainly, the class discussion added important ingredients for a distance telecourse: It allowed for much more interaction between professor and students than did paper mail, and it let the class members share ideas and learn from one another. In my case, it was really the professor who was functioning at a distance while the class functioned more as a live, face-to-face entity.

Comparison Of Computer And Audio Conferencing

The two most obvious points of contrast between audio and computer conferencing are synchronicity and hardware. The audio conference is constrained by time, but it also provides immediate, real-time responses

between instructor and student. In a live audio interaction, for example, it is easier to know a communication has been understood, and, if it requires clarification, it is more simple to do it and be sure the clarification has been conveyed accurately. The computer conference, in contrast, demands that each person be more careful to express him- or herself as clearly as possible in order to minimize confusion. Unlike the audio conference, though, it allows for maximum scheduling flexibility. Each student, as well as the professor, can adopt an individual schedule for work and, at the same time, have easy and fast responses. Unless phone connect expenses are high, electronic mail is one of the most convenient and efficient means of personal interaction at a distance.

The hardware required for audio conferencing is relatively inexpensive and readily accessible. An educational institution, for example, can purchase an audio bridge and, if necessary, speaker-phone systems. Students, though, need to have access to a phone at home and/or at work. Computer conferencing, on the other hand, requires more expensive and less accessible equipment: Schools would have to have a mainframe computer that could run conferencing software. The technology required to operate this kind of system is costly. While more and more people own microcomputers, computers, still, are not as common as telephones. In addition, connections--or the interface--between a PC and a mainframe computer can be complex and confusing. Nevertheless, these problems are becoming less and less an issue. The PC is becoming more common in both the home and school, and some industry standards seem to be emerging.

Personal Conclusions and Reflections

In my use of these two systems, the computer conference created an atmosphere that encouraged more personal and intimate sharing than did the audio conference. If, however, each student in the audio conference was phoning in from home or from work rather than being together in a classroom, then perhaps the audio conference would simulate a similar anonymous and unthreatening climate. Also, in my experience, electronic mail was convenient and encouraged a substantial amount of one-to-one contact between teacher and students. The phone, because it entailed long-distance charges, did not do so. If, however, the two classes had been structured so that the audio group had a local call to the professor while the computer group incurred long-distance expenses to access electronic

mail, the results might have been partially reversed. Electronic mail still has the advantage of instantaneous delivery without the recipient having to be home to receive it as is the case with a phone message. In this respect, it still has an advantage over phone communication.

While the audio conference was difficult for me, I would be willing to teach with it again. Obviously, I enjoy the computer conference a great deal more. The choice of systems, however, will ordinarily be made on other grounds than personal preference. Distance, budgets, and hardware availability will usually dictate which technology is more suitable to a particular situation. In either case, audio and computer conferencing do add an important enhancement to distance teaching: Instead of it being primarily a one-way delivery methodology, distance education can be genuinely interactive. Sometimes the interaction may even exceed that of the classroom. Besides the communication between teacher and learner,

the students can, in fact, engage in meaningful peer learning. Many educators believe that learning from one another is the most valuable aspect of a college education. The interaction among students and between the teacher and class can be effectively achieved through telecommunication and teleconferencing. This added component to distance learning--interaction--is a significant enhancement and should be utilized whenever and wherever possible.

For further Information

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Mason, R., & Kaye, A. (Eds.). (1989). Mindwave: Communication, computers and distance education. Oxford: Pergamon.

NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION
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B O O K R E V I E W

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******* formerly published in the ICAE newsletter/forum, *******
******* Participatory Formation (Email Address: USERBOSH@UBCMTSG). *******

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INTELLECTUAL SUPPRESSION: AUSTRALIAN CASE HISTORIES, ANALYSIS AND RESPONSES

Martin, B. et al. (Eds.). (1986). North Ryde: Angus & Robertson Publishers.

Reviewed by Roger Boshier

The notion that universities and research institutes are congenial institutions where teams of colleagues diligently create knowledge, overwhelm stupidity, and roll back the frontiers of ignorance had great appeal to the founders of the medieval universities. But contemporary scholars know that the modern equivalents can be something else. These days, education is in crisis, and, as the university develops cosy relationships with the corporate sector and other distributors of beneficence and cold cash, there are increased incentives to stifle those whose work or manners do not fit the dominant ideology of the day. As well, scientists in government departments routinely see findings suppressed by superiors who find their political implications embarrassing. When these facts are set down in Australia, where a good punch-up is as deeply rooted in the culture as flamboyant entrepreneurs, bruising politics, and bouncing kangaroos, it creates a backdrop for a sensational assault on intellectual freedom.

In Canada, dissenters and troublemakers in the academy are clobbered behind the scenes within a framework of politeness and decency. There is no such caveat in Australia where the rough-and-tumble traditions of a convict colony remain in force. When dirty linen is washed, it is usually hung out with considerable fanfare and an almost complete disregard for modesty or decorum.

The clobbering machine is a prominent part of popular culture down-under. This book is about the intellectual clobbering machine, how repressive interests deal with academic irritants--people whose ideas and research threaten the vested interests of elites in corporations, government, professions, or some other area. It is also about petty jealously, power struggles in the academy, prima donnas that adorn universities and research institutes, and powerful interests who want to silence those who threaten profits, bureaucratic power, prestige, or public image by espousing alternative views.

The bulk of this 300-page book is an analysis of incidents that involved successful and unsuccessful attempts to silence Australian academics and scientists. The editors distinguish between direct suppression (denying funds, blocking tenure, dismissal, harassment, blacklisting, and smearing) and indirect suppression (implied or overt threat of sanctions, the creation of a general climate of fear, or pressures for conformity). The authors were primarily interested in intellectual suppression--the stifling of ideas--while at the same time admitting that suppression sometimes arises because of a person's political affiliation, ethnic origin, sexual preference, religion, personality, or superior competence. The big problem is that people are often clobbered with mendacious charges to disguise the fact that tenure, promotion, or research grants are being denied because the research threatens someone (government, business, politicians). Suppression is often hard to prove and, in some countries, so widely accepted as a necessary corollary of social stability that it hardly warrants public discussion.

Part One contains chapters on Australian scientists and the cold war, the political economy and pressures for conformity in the University of Sydney Economics Department, the clobbering of Professor Orr at the University of Tasmania, prejudice in the granting of research funds, how promotion and politics are used to silence trouble-makers (or stirrers in New Zealand), and the perversion or censorship of science. Part Two consists of four essays on the social politics of intellectual suppression. Part Three contains four essays that present options (e.g., publicity) for dissidents who suspect the clobbering machine is lumbering down the hall toward their office. Although not specifically directed at adult educators, the book canvasses issues that press for attention in our field.

This reviewer read the book in one sitting during a long airline flight and was deeply disturbed by its contents because, at that time, an adult educator in Vancouver had been accused of using intemperate and illegitimate language and concepts in a memo that accused a university committee of having unwittingly (or perhaps deliberately) accepted the assumptions and exhortations of new rightist ideology. When adult education was simply a technical matter involving rational processes of planning and teaching, we were reasonably safe, provided we hovered at the edge of the academy and didn't criticize school teachers, the government, and others with a vested interest in the status quo. In recent years, however, adult education has grown in importance, and there have been many critical examinations of the socio-philosophical assumptions of adult education that challenge the dominant ideology of structural functionalism and its close relatives in human capital theory.

Those who pay attention know that, although it takes different forms, intellectual suppression of adult educators is commonplace and exists in North America: Gifted intellects (like Henry Giroux and John Ohliger) continue to pay a heavy price for espousing unconventional views. Of course, this is not novel news for popular educators in Latin America, especially those who unmask and oppose the dictator at great peril, or for Freire, who was driven into exile because of his populist views about literacy and development, or colleagues in Asia who bend to immense social discipline or answer an early morning knock on the door. Some popular

educators in Latin America maintain autonomy through solidarity with colleagues in other countries but still disappear. In parts of Southeast Asia and elsewhere, for example, mildly reformist community workers have been labelled new-Marxist and imprisoned without trial. Even in Hong Kong, conventional wisdom asserts that leaders of the democracy movement, who speak of praxis and conscientization, will cripple their life-chances and end up on a blacklist.

This reviewer had a nodding acquaintance with some of the more outrageous examples of suppression cited in the book but was exhausted by the prolonged and detailed disemboweling of, for example, the Sydney University Economics Department where conservative economists castrated political economists who repudiated the notion that economic inquiry is value free. This dispute, like others reported in the book, involved extreme bitterness and wasted immense amounts of energy. It is all important stuff but there is a sense in which the reader wants these prima donnas to set their egos aside so the academy can get away from accusation and counter accusation and back to research. It is hard to read this stuff because it is all a tragic reminder of ways in which institutions destroy themselves and their personnel. This is a particular problem here; after dispensing with one case, the authors move on to another, and another, and another, ...

The Orr case was particularly troubling. Professor Orr had accused the University of Tasmania of apathy, neglect, and maladministration. A Royal Commission was appointed to inquire into these and related charges. But Orr was soon nailed by the university that leveled four charges at him, including the allegation that he had sexual relations with a Miss Suzanne Kemp, daughter of a Hobart businessman. Orr denied the charges, but his case was particularly tragic because he died before the truth emerged.

It is all dreary stuff yet relevant to us because adult education often challenges the status quo. As academics working in adult education embrace mainstream conflict perspectives, there will be increasing attacks from other parts of the academy.

Perhaps the most useful part of this book are the analytic essays in Part Two. The first has a typology of elites and a conceptual framework for a populist challenge. The next outlines the struggle for feminist critique in universities, and the third, which was of greatest interest to this reviewer, was on the psychology of bureaucratic conformity. In this third essay, the author claims there is an ideology of bureaucracy, and this leads to suppression of alternative views through systems of control or, in Noam Chomsky's words, the manufacture of consent. In the last essay, there is an analysis of the twilight zone world of human and academic rights. The most pernicious thing about all this is the apparent willingness of colleagues to stand by while others are clobbered and, even more serious, the proclivity of some to incorporate or adopt the ethos of the oppressor or suppressor by dutifully conforming to the rules of the game. In this regard, there are echoes of Germany where people claimed

they didn't know what the Nazis were doing or reports of brainwashing where the persecuted take on, identify with, or develop affection for their tormentors or oppressors.

Although this is an Australian book written by Australians about a clobbering machine that has a distinctive Australian flavor, its themes and exhortations are universal and make readers think about the historic vulnerability of adult educators. It is depressing to forage in this quagmire and witness the persecution of academics, the destruction of careers, the outrageous violations of natural justice. At one level, the unhappy victims of suppression whose personal and academic lives are dissected here are all foreigners and yet, at another, we know them intimately because they are us and we are them. Set aside the particularities and they become universal people. Suppression merely differs by degree. This recognition of ourselves is unsettling as is the inexorable nature of the bureaucracy involved in each case that functions in the name of efficiency.

We in adult education should note all this because, as some of our most important scholars have discovered, life doesn't look good from inside a jail cell. It does not matter whether one is inside a psychological jail--convicted, clobbered, denied tenure, or given the boot for espousing uncomfortable ideas--or inside the more conventional jail, with iron bars, guards, and steel gates. The Australians who produced this book are to be commended. Hopefully, their work will cause us to be more observant of our own backyard, which, one suspects, looks much like theirs. Or worse.

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F R O M T H E E D I T O R S' D E S K

The following article is based on a research report, The Electronic Journal: Promises and Predicaments by MICHAEL EHRINGHAUS, in the Syracuse University Kellogg Project Technical Report Series (Technical Report No. 3, November 1989).

NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION: A READERSHIP SURVEY REPORT

by

FILE: HORIZO3 TXT A1 S.U. COMPUTING AND NETWORK SERVICES VM/SP

Michael Ehringhaus

Introduction

The first issue of NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION was published in Fall, 1987. In an effort to take a step back and look at electronic media applications as an emerging technology for publication and scholarship, the editorial staff of NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION surveyed the members of AEDNET--the readers and users of NEW HORIZONS. The results of this survey say a great deal about creating, reading, and writing for an electronic journal. In addition, they point to some of the promises and the predicaments of electronic publication.

Results and Discussion

Surveys were sent electronically to all subscribers of AEDNET (N=155), and, of those, 27 people responded. While the response rate was low, the results do provide us with some useful information for the future development of NEW HORIZONS and for understanding our interaction with its medium of transmission.

The people who responded to the survey consisted of professors, students, and practitioners in the field of adult education: approximately 53% professors, 41% students, and 6% practitioners. In addition, 74% were male and 26% were female. Overall, people rated the journal good to very good in terms of the variety of articles, quality of the journal, ease of reading, and relevance. Students, however, tended to rate NEW HORIZONS slightly higher on these items than professors, with the one exception of quality.

Aside from people's opinions of the journal, we wanted to find out if people cite the journal, whether or not NEW HORIZONS has generated conversation among colleagues, and whether or not people pass the journal to others. Twenty-six percent reported that they have cited the journal. When we asked where they had made reference to it, five places were mentioned: in university classes, in a forthcoming book, in various newsletters, in an article, and in a class paper. In terms of generating conversation and passing the journal on to others, 66% said that the journal had, indeed, sparked conversation, while 29% pass electronic copies and 54% pass paper copies to others.

It was very clear from the survey results that a substantial portion

of the readers of NEW HORIZONS experience technical problems as a result of receiving the lengthy journal electronically. Thirty-six percent reported having problems, including receiving truncated versions of the journal and having technical difficulty receiving, manipulating, and printing lengthy electronic mail. Yet, in spite of the technical difficulties many reported experiencing, 37% of the respondents said that they had learned more about the use of computers for communication as the result of receiving and reading the journal.

NEW HORIZONS has changed with the publication of each issue. This on-going process of change reflects the journal's youth and, at the same time, its attempts to adapt to both the medium and to emerging reader expectations and author submissions. In an effort to collect ideas for future issues and for the overall development of the journal within the field of adult education, we asked readers to tell us ways to improve the journal. Several suggestions were made: Make the journal interactive, increase variety of features, make the journal accessible to non-mainframe users, publish more often, pass the editorship to other universities, help the end-user with technical problems.

Another purpose of the survey was to ask readers (a) who the journal should publish and (b) how to increase a feeling of ownership of the journal within the field. An overwhelming majority felt that NEW HORIZONS should not limit its publication to that of student writing; 88% felt that the journal should include articles by professors and practitioners, as well as students. Several means of increasing a sense of ownership within the field were mentioned: Include the journal in ERIC, make hard copies available, increase publicity, provide free copies to libraries, pass the editorship to other universities, do workshops at conferences, archive the journal.

At this point, NEW HORIZONS is a refereed journal, and 71% of those responding to the survey think it should remain so. A refereed journal appears to have more status within the field, so acceptance of a new journal like NEW HORIZONS might depend, to some degree, on whether or not it maintains some form of quality control--usually a peer review process for articles.

The fact that NEW HORIZONS is run by graduate students and is electronic in nature are other issues associated with acceptance. Does publication in a student-run journal carry the weight of publishing in a journal run by an established group of recognized people in a particular field? Within any field the status of graduate students is somewhat marginal, so a student-run venture has to overcome certain built-in biases associated with that status. In addition, does publication in an electronic journal have the status of publication in an paper journal? These two factors--student-run journal vs one managed by recognized leaders and electronic journal vs paper journal--compound the task NEW HORIZONS faces in establishing itself within the field of adult education.

Perhaps the most pervasive aspect of acceptance is accessibility: Who is able to receive and read an electronic journal? The respondents to the readership survey suggested ways to make the journal more accessible to

both mainframe users and nonusers. Underlying these suggestions is the assumption that the journal doesn't exist solely for the electronic medium: Knowledge is communal, so distribution can and should happen in a variety of ways. Acceptance, then, depends, to some degree, on the ability of people to reach the contents of the journal.

Access--both the limited number of people who actually have access to a mainframe and the technical skills necessary to manage lengthy electronic files--is a problem and concern for readers of NEW HORIZONS. Network access is not pervasive throughout the world or within those areas of institutions in which adult education departments are housed. Some readers of NEW HORIZONS, for example, have to share computer accounts with colleagues while other readers find it next to impossible to gain the necessary institutional support (both technical and training) to engage in the level of mainframe communications necessary to interact with AEDNET, in general, or with NEW HORIZONS, in particular. Any publication distributed via an electronic network is, therefore, limited in its readership to those who have the means and institutional support necessary to log on and use the system.

Although NEW HORIZONS is transmitted via mainframe communications technology, access to the journal does not have to be limited to electronic networks. As the respondents to the survey indicated, the journal could be placed in ERIC and other nonelectronic databases. In addition, the journal could be stored on a variety of computer disk formats as an ASCII file and distributed at a nominal cost to interested individuals, libraries, and universities. Paper copies could also be distributed at a charge to cover basic costs.

Conclusion

Computer and communications technology have some clear benefits. While democratization of knowledge and increased collegiality have been suggested outcomes of electronic communications, the financial reality, alone, poses substantial problems of access. At this point, it is simply not financially possible for many people to gain access to electronic networks or to the hardware necessary for electronic publishing.

Two questions, then, seem to stand out, stark in their implications: What are the social consequences of this restriction of access? What affect will the use or the lack of use of mainframe communications technology have on the knowledge base of an academic field? The electronic journal is a technological neonate full of the possibilities and promises of youth. Yet, with those promises come predicaments. Just as the electronic journal may be the solution to one set of problems, it might, too, be part of the genesis of other quandaries. What is most important, then, is that we don't fail--in our acceptance or rejection of this

emerging communications technology--to grapple with those two questions.

NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION
Volume 3, Number 12/89, Fall 1989

F O R Y O U R I N F O R M A T I O N

SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION RESEARCH COLLECTION

Historians, adult educators, and other researchers will find a wealth of materials in the manuscripts and special collections that comprise Syracuse University's Adult and Continuing Education Research Collection. Generally regarded as the largest English-language adult and continuing education archives in the world, the collection covers almost 900 linear feet of shelf space and contains papers from about 20 organizations and 35 individuals.

The George Arents Research Library, where the materials are housed, has identified collection strengths in the history of adult education as a profession, adult literacy, and civic education. While some documents date back to the 1920s and earlier, most fall between 1945 and 1970. Improvements in the accessibility of the documents are taking place under the auspices of the Syracuse University Kellogg Project, a five-year research project conducted in cooperation with the Adult Education Program of the School of Education.

Following is a list of the organizations and individuals represented in the collection, along with the dates of the papers and the number of archival boxes they fill (each box occupies 6 inches of shelf space):

* Adult Education Association of the United States (AEA), 1924-1968, 36 boxes.
* Adult Education Research Conference (AERC), 1969-1971, 2 boxes.
* American Foundation for Continuing Education (AFCE), 1947-1965, 38 boxes.
* Association of University Evening Colleges (AUEC), 1927-1973, 34 boxes.
* Lalage J. Bown, 1961-1980, 7 boxes.
* Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults (CSLEA), 1951-

1969, 84 boxes, 2 packages.

* Alexander N. Charters, 1948-1971, 2 boxes. (See also AEA, AFCE, AUEC, FAE, NUEA, and Galaxy Conference)

* Coalition of Adult Education Organizations (CAEO), 1967-1968, 4 boxes.

* Commission of Professors of Adult Education (CPAE), 1953-1984, 13 boxes, 120 tapes, 2 film reels, 4 slide carousels.

* ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult Education (ERIC/AE), 1962-1973, 12 boxes.

* Fund for Adult Education (FAE), 1950-1969, 97 boxes and 1 package.

* 1969 Galaxy Conference, 1964-1970, 3 boxes.

* Eva Elise vom Baur Hansl, 1889-1978, 35 boxes.

* Andrew Hendrickson, 1933-1971, 15 boxes.

* International Congress of University Adult Education (ICUAE), 1959-1968, 6 boxes.

* Joseph W. Jacques, 1972, 21 reels of magnetic tape in 2 boxes.

* Malcolm S. Knowles, 1930-1985, 66 boxes and 1 carton of cassette and video tapes, films, and graphics.

* Laubach Literacy International and Dr. Frank C. Laubach, 1884-1970, 328 boxes, 10 cartons.

* Alexander A. Liveright, 1934-1969, 7 boxes.

* National Association of Public School Adult Educators (NAPSAE), 1934-1964, 6 boxes.

* National University Extension Association (NUEA), 1924-1968, 41 boxes.

* George A. Parkinson Papers, 1937-1963, 1 box.

* Bernard W. Reed, 1915-1962, 3 boxes.

* Robert E. Sharer, 1943-1971, 2 boxes.

* Paul Henry Sheats, 1958-1967, 103 boxes.

* Syracuse University Publications in Continuing Education (SUPCE), 1966-1971, 5 boxes.

* Willard Thompson (on the Wingspread and Galaxy Conferences), 1966-1970, 4 boxes.

* University Council on Education for Public Responsibility (UCEPR), 1961-1964, 1 box.

* Coolie Verner, 1953-1972, 3 boxes.

NOTE: There are 3 boxes and two packages of photographs collected from many individuals and organizations from 1932-1975. Best represented is the Fund for Adult Education.

Related Collections

* Edmund Chaffee, minister and founder of the Labor Temple
* Martha F. Crow, writer/lecturer on women in education
* H.L. Custard, author and educator
* W.R. Davey, educator
* W. Dean Mason, expert on gerontology and geriatrics
* Osborne family (papers on correctional education)
* James Pike, early 19th century teacher
* D.C. Watson, art critic and lecturer
* F.A. Weiss, educator and social researcher

For further information about the Syracuse University Adult and Continuing Education Research Collection contact either of the following people:

TERRY KEENAN, Adult Education Manuscripts Librarian,
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E D I T O R I A L P O L I C Y

NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION

NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION is a refereed journal published by the Syracuse University Kellogg Project and is electronically transmitted to subscribers via the advanced communications technology of mainframe computers. The journal is managed by graduate student editors at Syracuse University in cooperation with an international editorial board comprised of graduate students. All article submissions are double-blind reviewed by two or more editorial board members. There is no cost for electronic copies of articles or back issues of NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION; they are sent, free of charge, to all subscribers to the Adult Education Network (AEDNET), an international electronic network of adult educators. Paper or disk copies of the journal may be purchased by contacting the journal staff at the address listed below. NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION is indexed and abstracted by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education.

PURPOSE: NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION was founded to enhance international dialogue within the field of Adult Education using advanced communications technology.

NATURE OF PUBLICATIONS: NEW HORIZONS publishes research, thought pieces, book reviews, point counter-point articles, and invitational columns written by graduate students, professors, and practitioners involved in adult education.

ARTICLE SUBMISSION: NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION accepts articles in a variety of formats: paper, email, fax, computer disk. If, however, articles are sent to the journal on computer disk, the journal editors request that it be stored in ASCII, the universal computer language. There are NO LENGTH REQUIREMENTS, but authors should recognize that reviewers will evaluate articles to see that the subject and substance of the piece warrants the length. Submitted articles should include the following: (a) the title of the manuscript, (b) full names, institutional affiliation, and positions of authors, and (c) statement of place and date of any previous oral or written presentation of the paper.

While the electronic medium will not accommodate strict adherence to the rules governing manuscript style and references outlined in the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (APA), APA is the preferred style of NEW HORIZONS and should be used as guidance for the preparation of the manuscript for submission. Send all article submissions to the electronic address, HORIZONS@SUVM, or to NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT

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EDUCATION, Syracuse University Kellogg Project, 113 Euclid Avenue, Syracuse, New York 13244-4160. All other correspondence concerning change of address or membership in AEDNET can be sent to either of these addresses.

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NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION

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Volume 4 Number 1 Spring/Summer 1990

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N E W H O R I Z O N S IN A D U L T E D U C A T I O N

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Call for Manuscripts, Fall/Winter 1991 Issue

NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION
Volume 4, Number 9/90, Spring/Summer 1990

INVITATIONAL COLUMN

by

John Ohliger
Basic Choices, Inc.

There are at least three perfectly legitimate ways of experiencing time:

First, as straight time, the march forward from past, present, to future. Clocks and calendars measure it.

Second, time just is. It is a fundamental context of our lives. There is no past, present, future. Modern physicists and ancient philosophies agree here.

Third, time neither marches only forward, nor just is. It also stops, speeds up, slows down, circles, and it weaves itself into a thousand landscapes of time. Almost everyone who has been in love, has basked in the time-stopping beauty of a sun-warmed day, or remembers idyllic timeless moments from childhood attests to the reality of this third oceanic time sense.

There are at least three perfectly legitimate ways of experiencing adult education:

First, in its standard brand varieties, as classes, or other (usually larger) institutionally organized instructional contexts, designed to help people make adjustments TO prevailing values.

Second, as classes, or other (usually smaller) institutionally organized contexts, designed to help people make adjustments OF prevailing values.

Third, as an embedded, culturally integral, generally undesigned and noninstitutionalized activity where the structure and the values are either personally or collectively self-chosen or unconscious.

Two Theses

First, the history of the growing dominance of straight time is inextricably linked with the history of the increasing hegemony of standard brand adult education.

Second, the mixed blessing of the growing attention to all kinds of time is inextricably linked with the mixed curse of conventional lifelong education's increasing takeover of the populace's available straight time.

To Elaborate

As industrial society encompassed more and more of daily life in the late 19th and the early 20th centuries, straight, linear, point-to-point time became more and more the concern of the power elite through, for example, the unilateral introduction of standard time zones and time-efficiency emphases in factories.

During the same period adult education became identified as a modern concern. Though there were some approaches challenging or bypassing the power of the few in the new field of adult education, conventional slot-fitting adult education quickly prevailed then until now more than half the adult population is forced to go back to school to correct some social problem, even though there is no evidence that any of this compulsory adult education is solving these problems.

Though early leaders of modern adult education such as Eduard Lindeman, Everett Martin, and Dorothy Canfield Fisher fostered alternatives or cautioned about the dangers of absorption in the economy of the day, adult education more and more aped the school and university systems.

As one example of the challenges from early leaders: Twelve years after the opening of the 20th century Eduard Lindeman spoke of "our unhealthy haste in everything." He labeled it "the American idea." And then in his 1926 classic THE MEANING OF ADULT EDUCATION Lindeman declared:

"Adjustments to the propelling forces in the modern world cannot be fruitfully achieved until intellectual, moral, and spiritual values emerge which are capable of giving direction and meaning to life. Optimistic interpreters explain the lack of these values in modern life in terms of time alone: they contend that science and the technologies are merely ahead of our capacities for adjustment--that we will soon catch up; or, if it happens that we never can catch up, we may rest content in acknowledging the inevitable 'lag.' But if life is to have more meaning than is implied in making up time, in overcoming lags, we shall need to learn how to make adjustments OF not TO."

As the millennium approaches in this last decade of the 20th century, so-called postindustrial society advocates enmesh people further in the demands of the clock, in adjustments TO time, while many adult educators rejoice in the centrality of the conventional portions of their field as the recipient of more funds and personnel than all other areas of education--elementary, secondary, and higher--combined, occupying more and more of people's clock time.

Straight time--as the inevitable, forward, and regimented movement from past, through the present, to the future--had been a unique characteristic of Judeo-Christian civilization from its early days. Hope of getting beyond this single vision view of time appeared on the horizon, however, from the late 19th century on in science, literature, the visual arts, folkways, and religious philosophy. Linear time was challenged at least momentarily: in science through the development of the relativity theories of Einstein and others; in literature through the attention to different time states in the novels of Proust, Woolf, Wilder, and others; in the visual arts through the multi-time paintings of Picasso and others; in folkways through the persistence of "once-upon-a-time" fairy tales, and other common figures of speech; and in religious philosophy through the attention to alternative time views in the approaches rediscovered from ancient non-patriarchal societies, and from India, China, and other Eastern civilizations.

What made these developments a mixed blessing was that they were often caught up in the measurement obsession of the linear view or imported without recognition of some of the disadvantages of the original cultural context. Because these developments were sometimes time-haunted and out-of-context, the rising hopes that more relaxed views of time--accompanied by an acceptance of eternity as a present state, not one postponed until after death--lost momentum.

As these mixed signs of hope for getting beyond a singular vision of time were appearing, the curse of lifelong all-encompassing universal compulsory instruction was gaining ground; first in the school system for children, then in higher education, and most recently in adult education. What makes it a mixed curse is the fact that--besides the cracks that continue to exist in the system of lifelong forced learning some people still do manage to learn to begin to liberate themselves--sometimes even in the courses they are required to take--despite the pressures in conventional directions.

The current panoply of degrees, credentials, and continuing education units based on required courses saves the time of the administrators of the economic system while stealing the time of everyone else. For instance, employers don't need to make informed judgments in hiring or promotion. They can rely more on requiring certain pieces of paper from educational institutions or from in-house programs instead of depending on interaction with potential employees or supervisors.

But some people still do find worthwhile educational paths on their own: By serendipity, through the subversive encouragement of their instructors; or through the assistance of some ecologically valuable approaches like the work of Jeremy Rifkin who calls for a democratic recognition that everyone's time is equally valuable; some socialist proposals like those of Andre Gorz who declares there is an "urgent need to create a society which rejects the work ethic in favor of an emancipatory ethic of free time;" some heart-opening Eastern approaches like the Taoism of Lao Tzu who recognizes the revolutionary

priority of nonlinear time over space; and some liberating approaches of feminists like Sonia Johnson who says:

"Time is what there is an unlimited supply of in the universe. Any beneficent society that is not simply the old one under a different rubric must first free our time, give us 'free time' That such an expression as 'free time' exists is evidence that the rest of our time is 'slave time.'"

However, these personal possibilities for adult learners still leave a serious dilemma for adult educators hoping to get beyond the straitjacketing march of time and the mass marketing of brand name continuing education. Traditionally, adult educators have been able to be of service to the growth of a free society by encouraging movements such as that for the introduction of the public schools with their support of the lyceums in the early 19th century. But their very success then leads to greater difficulties now. The schooling system is not only in place as a modest path to learning but has now captured the lives and time of most people including adults.

Simply encouraging new or different educational activities is no way out because it just adds to the already overwhelming anti-ecological glut of programs. The solution to this dilemma is that we all be on the lookout in our daily lives for ways to break free ourselves and encourage others---individually and collectively--to find fresh paths to better views of time and adult education as well. Some of the ecological, socialist, Eastern, feminist, scientific, literary, religious, and other approaches mentioned above can be helpful in leading us toward the day when time is truly free and adult education is universally defined as "friends educating each other."

I write as if I'm absolutely sure of the truth of the views above, but all statements are presented as speculative and tentative, designed to encourage discussion in which I'll be glad to join. The documentation and the sources of quotations are available in THE MILLENNIUM SURVIVAL KIT, Second Edition, 730 W. Jefferson, Springfield, IL 62702: Basic Choices, 1990, 110 pages. $15 paid in advance in U.S. funds. The price for this indexed document on two 5 1/4 inch floppy discs is $20 paid in advance in U.S. funds.

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John Ohliger, Director of Basic Choices, Inc., requests any information and views you might have on the past, present, and future of "social philosophy" in adult education or in general for a talk ("Take a Social Philosopher to Lunch This Week") he is giving at the Social Philosophy Luncheon during the Fall 1990 National Adult Education Conference in Salt Lake City. Further details are available from him at the address noted above.

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A COMPARISON OF FOLK HIGH SCHOOLS IN DENMARK, AND EAST AND WEST GERMANY

by

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Abstract

Adult education in Eastern Europe is experiencing limited funding and at the same time stiff competition from other agencies and institutions. The status of the Volkschochschule, or folk high school, is of particular importance. Private trade and commercial schools, as well as universities, are searching for new clients and offering both general and specialized courses for adults. Low literate youth and adults who lack job skills are in need of education. For example, immigrant laborers are demanding citizenship and better economic packages, including educational benefits for their children. Yet, reductions in local and national funding are forcing schools to operate below adequate levels. Given the diminishing resources, who is going to serve the adult population, including older adults, those who experience disabilities, and those who lack job related skills? This article, based on a series of interviews in Denmark, East Germany, and West Germany, looks at some of the social, political, and economic problems, especially as they relate to the folk high schools in these countries.

Introduction

Folk high schools evolved out of the 19th century needs for people trained in techniques of farming and commerce (Kulich, 1980; Rordam, 1984). In addition, churches began offering common people general education opportunities focused on learning to read and write. Trade unions founded schools for their workers and families, while private schools offered training in many technical areas for those wanting a skill and employment (Poulsen, personal communication). In the 20th century, the folk high school expanded its offerings to include business training, domestic science, mathematics, science and technology, general education, language study, cultural education, senior citizen courses, and secondary school certificates (Mepham, personal communication). There is significant popular sentiment favoring the folk high school, as many of its "graduates" are now politicians and business leaders. However, when folk school directors were asked what their greatest needs are,

increased funding was always mentioned first. Local or state support is supplemented by tuition collected from adult students who themselves are not always able to pay the nominal fees because of unemployment and excessive expenses connected with families, health, food, housing, and transportation.

Creative alternatives to the traditional folk school are being developed. An extension of the folk school is the study circle were a small group of people having a common interest gather with a tutor to discuss a particular topic under the auspices of the school (Mepham, personal communication). Traveling folk high schools are also increasing in popularity due mainly to broad travel into parts of the world that provide challenge, inquiry, and personal growth opportunities for the individual. Poulsen (personal communication) describes this as a newer form of international folk schooling whereby the government partially subsidizes the costs allowing a group of adults to pursue such worldly courses as building housing in Africa, helping drug addicts start new lives, or studying and developing strategies for world peace. Popular especially in Scandanavia, West Germany, and Great Britain, this form of adult education is changing in order to compete more effectively for students, many of whom are drawn toward private commercial schools. Even universities, as they search for new clients in order to keep their faculty employed, are reaching down to this level and offering more specialized vocational courses leading to employment. On a recent trip to West Germany, Denmark, and East Germany, I studied the Volkschochschule. The folk high school's future looks secure, but it is not without serious challenges.

Denmark

Interesting trends are apparent in the folk schools of Denmark where in 1844, at the urging of Grundtvig, a theologian interested in history and educating the peasant farmer, small groups of farmers were organized to discuss improvements in farming methods and to give the people a sense of personal history (Kulich, 1984; Rordam, 1980). Later, agricultural colleges developed from this movement as the early model evolved into residential folk schools of which there are about 100 presently in Denmark, according to Himmelstrup (personal communication). Secretary General Himmelstrup went on to say that it is estimated that one-fourth of five million Danes are enrolled in tuition-free folk schools where no exams and no papers are required. Serving mainly women, young adults, and foreign workers, more popular offerings at these folk schools are languages, reading, writing, history, mathematics, career exploration, and data processing. Government subsidy in Denmark is available to whomever can gather 12 to 15 people together for a common purpose in an appropriate facility to study for a length of time (Himmelstrup, personal communication).

Serious concern was expressed by government and folk school officials noted Poulsen (personal communication) over the drastic

decline in the Danish birth rate, predicted to approach zero in five years. As a result of this low birth rate, teaching is seldom seen as a viable profession and many former teachers are retraining in business and technological fields.

East Germany

Folk high schools in the German Democratic Republic (East Germany) are a direct link between people's education and higher education at the university level. The GDR folk schools serve the equivalent 10th grade student, the general education needs of adults, and the university entrance level of 12th grade completion. According to Professor Dr. Mohle of Karl Marx University in Leipzig (personal communication), the folk school cooperates with numerous agencies-sometimes as many as 40 collaborations between adult education groups and folk schools-in offering training programs at "factory academies" for retraining and raising workers' skill levels and general education knowledge. The most frequently offered courses are languages, sciences, literature, history, cultural interest courses, and typing, while more technical and computer related courses are the responsibility of other agencies, for example the engineering school. Commrade Verdo and his staff at the Leipzig Folk School in East Germany (personal communication) provided a picture of the typical East German adult attending their folk school: adults range in age from 20-70 years old, of whom 40% are women in technical training, satisfying leisure interests, involved in parent education, or doing a program culminating in a certificate. The folk school is served by a staff of 40 teachers with university diplomas and 250 part-time specialty instructors teaching 4-6 lessons per week for the 8000 people taking 500 courses per term.

West Germany

By acts of national and local legislatures, folk high schools in West Germany have gained legal status, procedures for governance, and methods for financing themselves. Folk school researcher Poulsen (personal communication) reported that local city councils in West Germany support the Volkschochschule.

In my interview with Dr. Pfeil, he confirmed that in West Germany 23% of the workers are foreign born from Turkey and Yugoslavia. They come with a low education level and they continue to lack resources for education. Of the students attending West German folk schools, two-thirds are women, most without substantial incomes for education. The Turkish worker in West Germany, besides adjusting to a foreign environment, is Moslem. This religion restricts women to the home, to child care and cooking and shopping duties. Many Turkish husbands are reluctant to allow their wives to attend the folk school-although some women now do-to learn consumer economics, reading, and writing. The poor and unemployed have little energy, time, motivation, or money for literacy training. However, more political attention is now being

given to educational opportunities for older citizens and the handicapped because national pride among the West Germans is at stake. Volk high schools (VHS) exist mainly to provide self-growth experiences, help people develop language proficiency, and offer courses leading to selected technical certificates and classes in business and mathematics. Some retraining courses are offered in the daytime but almost 80% of the classes are held in the evenings, as is typical throughout the VHS in Europe (Pfeil, 1984).

Job training, as opposed to general and leisure education offered by the VHS, is offered both by unions and private-commercial business schools (Kubly, 1983). These special interest schools serve selected clientele such as union officials and members and employees of businesses seeking to upgrade their skills in such fields as computer technology. Most of these commercial courses are shorter in duration and considerably more expensive than courses offered by the VHS. Budgetary restrictions do not allow the VHS to offer extensive training in computer applications as commercial schools are able to do. Clearly, the purposes of the two differ, but this division also creates competition for limited resources. The trend appears to be a stratification of offerings according to the needs of selected populations, the origin of funding sources (public or private), and the effectiveness of programs in helping people get jobs and in developing themselves. Folk schools are using more volunteers to teach high-demand courses that are less profitable than more regular offerings staffed by full-time adult educators, who seem to have little time for their own professional development outside of teaching their specialties (Himmelstrup, personal communication).

Adult education in West Berlin includes the offerings of folk high schools which are independent of any Ministry of Education. Serving mainly those persons who dropped out of the comprehensive school at age 16, the VHS provides courses of study leading to the 10th grade certificate, to acquiring the "high school equivalent" diploma, and entrance into trade schools and the university. Professor Doerry (personal communication) described the folk high school as primarily an evening program for housewives, foreign born workers, leisure time students, and career minded adults seeking skill development. Its more popular offerings are languages, business, the social sciences, mathematics and science, literature, history, and computer science.

As state economic support for the VHS wanes in West Berlin and as the universities expand their cooperative education ventures with government, private, and vocational organizations, the VHS is compelled to initiate ways of establishing collaborative arrangments with trade unions, churches, community agencies, and other interested publics who want shorter courses of a more personal-growth nature, offerings that may also be applied toward special certificates (Buchner, personal communication).

Summary

A closer look at the folk schools in these three countries reveals the following observations:

1) Folk schools have historically served the function of educating the masses but are now competing directly with the church, private, commercial, and trade schools, as well as universities, for students. This competition is blurred by a lack of clear responsibility and purpose as these agencies struggle to attract a limited population during a time of reduced funding and higher cost.

2) These conditions may compel both West Germany and Denmark to better coordinate programs among several institutions, public and private, in order to bring focus to program offerings and avoid duplication. Both nations have a history of rejecting central government interference that stifles local initiatives. However, conditions may necessitate this coordination. An issue that could bring formerly separate agencies together focused on a national-and worldwide-concern is adult illiteracy.

3) A clear distinction exists between Western and Eastern political philosophy regarding the purpose of the folk school. In the GDR, education aims to develop workers to meet state needs, while in the Western European countries education is more for individual development, the assumption being that the person will fulfill both himself and the needs of the state through productive citizenship and employment. It appears that these two philosophies may, by necessity of economics, population, and personal need, overlap in the near future, even more than they are now doing.

4) Nations are recognizing the necessity for local and state laws mandating support for adult continuing education. Helping to motivate creation of these laws are illiteracy among native and immigrant populations, the needs of disabled adults and older persons who retire at earlier ages, the technical needs of the society and collaborative efforts among agencies, such as trade unions and commercial establishments, and the need to avoid duplication of and competition for services.

5) The administration and staffing of the folk school consists of a relatively few well-trained full-time teachers of adults supplemented by many part-time specialists. I found inadequate attention being given to in-service staff development, to salary and program budgets, or to better training and utilization of volunteers.

Conclusion

The European folk high school continues to serve a significant population and perform a valuable function. As this article suggests, the future of the folk school in its historical form is somewhat uncertain. Its technical programs may be acquired by private commercial firms, as has happened in America, and general education offerings absorbed by the universities. Adult folk high schools will continue in a more limited and specialized form offering

personal growth opportunities for small groups of adults wanting either residential or short-term evening learning opportunities held in retreat centers, urban buildings, or as part of a travel experience to distant places. Increased educational offerings by industry, commercial agencies, and universities appears definite, thus increasing the competition for students and resources.

The current wave of immigrants into and out of the two Germanys necessitates renewed educational efforts by central and local agencies to provide literacy training and skill development. Renewed and increased demand for folk school offerings is predicted as Europe experiences the movement of people across more open borders. Not only is the need for technical skills paramount among these newly arrived immigrants, but entire families will desire citizenship orientation, language study, and personal development courses. Undoubtedly, the combined efforts of public and private agencies are required to assist with this growing need for literacy and skills. Central to this challenge is the European folk high school being called upon once again to deliver its humanistic curriculum as it did in the 19th century.

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Mohle, Professor Dr. Horst, Chair, Dept of Pedogogies, Karl Marx University, Leipzig, East Germany.

Pfeil, Dr. Alfred. Frankfurt Volkshochuschkle, Frankfurt, West Germany.

Poulsen, Dr. Sten, Researcher, Danish Institute of Education, Copenhagen.

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A DESCRIPTIVE APPRAISAL OF FUNCTIONAL LITERACY IN NIGERIA

by

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Abstract

This article focuses on functional literacy, which is one of the four adult education programmes in Nigeria. This article also highlights the major problems affecting the programmes in Nigeria. Finally, the authors offer some recommendations that can assist the planners in achieving effective functional literacy in Nigeria.

Introduction

The system of education in Nigeria is spelled out in a document, known as the "National Policy on Education," which was first published in 1977 and revised in 1981. Before 1977, the country was operating different kinds of educational systems. Thus, the new educational policy is geared towards correcting the contradictions, ambiguities, and lack of uniformity in the different states in the Federation. The policy, however, places greater emphasis on the formal education system, herein referred to as schooling. As a consequence, the policy is popularly known as the "6-3-3-4 system",

which is a reflection of the organization of the formal school system. The formal school system comprises six years of primary education, three years of junior secondary education, three years of senior secondary education, and four years of higher education.

In spite of the restructuring of the country's educational system, resulting in a great increase in the number of formal schools, Akintayo (1986) and Fajonyomi (1988) observed that the existing schools are inadequate to meet the demand for schooling by Nigerians. Furthermore, many Nigerians have been forced out of schools because of the rigidity of the learning programmes of the formal school system, which rarely gives room for learners to combine work with schooling. In realisation of this problem, the National Policy on Education has acknowledged the collective responsibility of formal and adult education in meeting the educational yearnings of Nigerians.

Adult education in Nigeria tends to complement and/or supplement formal education. The cost effectiveness of adult education programmes in Nigeria, when compared with corresponding formal school programmes, have been attested to by Okedana (1981) and Akintayo (1986). Literacy education has minimum learning requirements for adults in the society and it is considered an alternative to primary education. Remedial education or extramural classes, organised by both private agencies and the University's Department of Adult Education, prepare students for external examinations such as a General Certificate in Education (GCE O/L or A/L), ordinary or advanced level, and senior secondary school examinations. Furthermore, the continuing education institutes prepare literate adults in the country for professional courses such as accountancy, personnel management, and secretarial studies. In addition, some departments of adult education provide correspondence education for the benefit of workers who wish to obtain University degrees but cannot afford to leave their jobs for residential courses offered under the auspices of distance learning programmes.

The Status of Adult Literacy Education

The government and the people of Nigeria are convinced now more than ever before that any amount invested in adult education, especially in functional literacy education, is an appropriate investment in human resources that will lead to national development (Igbalajobi, 1988). Adult education began in Nigeria under the Mass Education Programme introduced by the British Colonial Government. The main objective of the programme was to reduce the level of illiteracy among Nigerians so that the people would understand the roles of the British Government (Omolewa, 1986). The British Government effort was complemented by the sponsorship of literacy workers by nongovernmental organisations, notably community groups, missionaries, voluntary organisations, and employers of workers. This, according to Omolewa (1988), was the background for the establishment of several literacy projects and

evening classes which spread throughout Nigeria.

Literacy education can be divided into functional literacy and traditional literacy classes. Traditional literacy, which involves the ability to read and write, is now de-emphasized in the country in favour of functional literacy. Functional adult literacy classes are tied to individual professions and sometimes referred to as competency-based adult education programmes. The functional adult education programme is becoming increasingly important in Nigeria. Since the aim of functional adult education is to improve competence, farmers, traders, and contractors have enrolled in such classes. Typically one hour daily is devoted to learning and two hours daily are devoted to demonstrations. Some noteworthy effects of the functional programmes are:
1) Farmers have formed cooperative groups and have contributed to an increased food supply in many communities.
2) Contractors with added knowledge from the programmes have been able to construct quality roads, bridges, schools, post offices, and market stalls, all serving to open the rural areas to development.
3) Women, who are mainly traders, are now able to keep accounts of their sales and have also contributed to an increased profit margin.

Adult education in Nigeria has also been used as tool for political awareness and social mobilization. As a result of the adult education programmes in Nigeria, people are now aware of the role of the government in their community and some have been selected to represent their areas in the running of the local administration. There is no doubt that adult education has increased the participation of adults in the administration of their respective communities. It is also important to add that the level of illiteracy has been reduced considerably from about 80% in 1959 to about 40 - 60% in 1986 (Ojo, 1986). Adult education has also opened most of the rural areas in Nigeria to development. The Basic Projects such as water, electricity, transportation, and postal facilities are now being initiated by adult learners, having identified the needs of their communities through well organised discussion classes.

It is also important to mention the role of higher institutions in functional adult education programmes in Nigeria. The Universities of Ibadan, Lagos, Ife, Zaria, and Maiduguri are doing a lot by way of training the much-needed personnel throughout Nigeria. For example, the authors of this paper are Lecturers in the Department of Adult Education and Extension Services of the University of Maiduguri. Apart from training personnel for Adult Education and Extension Services, the Department, on a regular basis, organises workshops and seminars for the instructors of adult education programmes throughout the country. In addition, the University Authority, in collaboration with the Department, is developing a model village known as the "Dalori Project" using the principles of functional adult education. Professor Nur Alkali, the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Maiduguri, initiated the Dalori Project as a part

of the contribution of the University to the locality. The principle behind the project is that the people in the settlement, the University, and the government will cooperate to provide amenities such as electricity, water supply, good roads, markets, postal agencies, and all others that are basic in modern settlements. It is envisioned that the project will check rural migration and that such model towns will be developed in many communities in Nigeria as a process of developing the rural areas. The Dalori Project is progressing gradually.

The University is also encouraging the staff of the Department to write books and design curricula for instruction in adult education classes that can be used in all other states of the Federation. There is no doubt that if the authorities of other Nigerian universities can take a cue from the activities of the University of Maiduguri, this will go a long way in improving the status of functional adult education throughout Nigeria.

Problems and Issues

Adult education plays a very important role in transforming rural areas in Nigeria to a more habitable environment, but there are problems and issues that require immediate attention and solution before this noble objective can be fully achieved. Inadequate provision of facilities for the programmes are a major impediment in most areas of Nigeria. There is a shortage of tables, chairs, and classrooms. Sometimes classes are held under trees or in classrooms that are meant for small children. Similarly, there is a problem with a lack of adequate educational materials. For example, there are no standard textbooks for adults. To facilitate learning, some of the materials could have been written in Nigerian indigenous languages. Teaching aids are totally absent in most of the adult classes. Teaching aids should be used frequently to allow adult learners to know the relationship between what is learned and their immediate environment. The teaching should also include practical demonstrations of ideas and concepts and should be related to everyday life. For example, the simple counting of 1-10 should be related to the process of buying and selling. This would be another form of reinforcement and it would allow the students to see the significance of such education as a part of their daily survival.

To facilitate successful learning, there is a need for qualified and competent instructors. At the moment in Nigeria there is a serious problem of inadequate numbers of qualified and experienced teachers in functional adult education. Most of the instructors are not trained for the job. They are mostly volunteers who opted to teach adults. Although some instructors have a teacher education background, most were trained in primary education, not in adult education. A recent study on adult education and teacher quality revealed that only one qualified teacher is available for every ten teachers sampled (Dada, 1987). There is an urgent need to improve the quality of the teachers if adults are to benefit from the programmes. Similarly, most of the instructors were appointed on a

part-time basis, and expected to teach either twice or three times a week. The treatment given to the instructors is not encouraging, as sometimes they are not paid for a period of three months. Therefore, many instructors show a negative attitude through irregular attendance and little concern for the students. The overall morale of the instructors tends to be very low.

Adult education classes are held all over Nigeria. Yet, we do not have a national research, monitoring, and evaluation unit to track the activities of the local, state, and federal officers who are expected to carry the message to the grassroots. There is need to conduct constant research on the programmes to enable the government to recognise areas that require immediate attention and improvement. Research could also be conducted to find out the attitudes of people toward the programmes and to suggest measures and ideas that could improve the programmes and better meet the needs of diverse groups of learners. There is a need for national evaluation based on empirical studies that evaluate the totality of the programmes.

It is important to mention that the federal government of Nigeria is spending a lot of money on adult education programmes. The issue of finance arises as a result of misdirected spending as well as misappropriation of the funds meant for the programmes. Recently, it was alleged that an agency responsible for the organisation of adult education in a state of the Federation diverted the money meant for adult education to other areas of need. Also, the present purchasing power of the Naira in relation to other foreign currency is affecting the financial position of adult education in Nigeria. The allocation to adult education by both the federal and the state government have dropped by about 40% in the last five years. Some states of the Federation, in a study conducted recently on problems of adult education in Nigeria, indicated that the problems of finance are a major obstacle on the road to success. The report further noted that basic materials such as chalk and exercise books cannot be bought for the learners because money is not available. There are reports of poor payment to the instructors, also a result of poor financial management (Atolagbe, 1988).

The dropout rate in adult education programmes in Nigeria is very high. A recent study by Adeola (1987) on the causes of dropout in adult education programmes shows that between 30 - 40% of the learners leave before the end of the course. The dropout rate among the females is higher than the males, about 45%. The reasons for dropout include lack of motivation on the part of the teachers and lack of interest on the part of the students. Some of the adult learners leave because of financial problems arising from their inability to buy basic materials for the classes. Most of the men that left the classes left because the classes have no relationship to what they do daily. Some of them leave during the planting and harvesting periods to devote such time to their crops on the farm. Some of the states are now worried about the rate of attrition in the adult education programmes, especially in adult literacy classes. Organisers of the programme are now trying to substitute functional

adult literacy for the traditional form to encourage adult learners to remain in the classes. For example, in a class of twenty-five adult learners, only about ten can be regarded as regular students. Efforts are now on to control the problem by making the classes interesting and to supply what the learners need to make them remain in the programmes.

Recommendations

The problems and issues discussed earlier call for recommendations which if adopted could lead to the improvement of the status of adult education in Nigeria. It is erroneously believed that adult literacy education does not necessarily need additional resources, especially capital items, other than those meant for formal education. This conception might have been responsible for insufficient funds being allocated to adult education. Thus, the various governments in the country should be advised to allocate at least ten percent (10%) of the education budget to adult education, contrary to the present practice of less than one percent (1%) (Fajonyomi, 1988). With adequate funds the organisers will be able to acquire relevant materials--books, primers, chairs, tables, and so on--for adult learners' use. Also qualified instructors and other workers could be hired with sufficient funds. Furthermore, it would be possible to train the less qualified instructors through workshops, seminars, and in-service programmes.

For the purpose of effective coordination of the various adult education programmes run by the different agencies--universities, government parastatals, private, and religious organisations--bodies such as the National Commission, State Agencies, and a Local Government Committee for Adult and Nonformal Education should be established. Such bodies should be headed by adult education experts. These experts will be able to define the course of action regarding adult education. At the same time, a national network for adult education activities should be set up in the country which will be in a better position to determine the number of learners that have benefitted from adult education throughout the country.

To reduce high dropout rates among adult learners, efforts should be made to identify major factors responsible for the high dropout rate. Such efforts will reduce the cost of retraining the dropouts (Fajonyomi, 1988). Also, policymakers should rejuvenate their efforts in organising public enlightment campaigns on the importance of adult and literacy education. The campaigns should be directed at the nonparticipating groups. It has been observed that the advice of the nonparticipants influences the decision of the participating group to persist or to quit. In addition, the condition of the adult education centres should be improved, especially in the rural areas, and the programmes should be held at convenient times for the learners.

The employers of workers should be advised to recognise certificates obtained from adult education programmes, especially those that are equivalent to a formal school programme. Such

decisions will encourage prospective learners to enroll and persist in the adult education programmes. This is important to adult education planners and policymakers who should ensure that the various adult education programmes are comparable to formal school programmes.

Developed countries of the world like the U.S.A. or Britain who have been involved in adult education for a long time can also assist the programmes in Nigeria. For example, the Kellogg programmes in the United States of America can give a lead in this direction. The assistance can be in the form of regular supplies of relevant materials on adult education to agencies in developing countries. Assistance may also be in the form of sponsoring seminars, workshops, and visits to centres of adult education in other parts of the world. Such assistance will provide opportunities for researchers and practitioners in adult education to share ideas and experiences.

Conclusion

The authors of this article have made an attempt to appraise the situation and the state of adult education programmes in Nigeria. It is clear that the programmes are gaining remarkable ground in Nigeria. The authors are convinced that as a result of the activities of adult education programmes in Nigeria, most rural areas will be exposed to development and will actually experience a positive change. However, adult education programmes in Nigeria must be taken by the government as a serious activity, or else the federal government of Nigeria's slogan of education for all by the year 2000 may not be realised after all.

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B O O K R E V I E W

INTENTIONAL CHANGES by Allen Tough

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In 1971 Allen Tough published THE ADULT'S LEARNING PROJECTS: A FRESH APPROACH TO THEORY AND PRACTICE IN ADULT LEARNING (Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1971). That publication touched off a flurry of reactions, both positive and negative, as well as a considerable body of spin-off research throughout the professional adult education community (Sheckley, 1985). Reactions and references to that work continue regularly to appear in the current literature of adult education. Well it should; how can anyone report adult education participation rates, for example, without reference to Tough's observation that the vast majority of adults routinely engage in purposeful and systematic learning projects, that they do so with a remarkable degree of efficacy, and that such learning takes place largely outside of organized providership (Tough, 1971). Few educators would have

questioned an assertion that adults routinely learn from their environments and oftentimes engage purposefully in learning episodes to satisfy curiosities or to solve problems emerging in the course of their personal, family, community, or occupational lives. But such learning has been regarded as too casual and insignificant to merit recognition and attention from professional adult education. Even lifelong learning enthusiasts who have advocated the deinstitutionalization of education and the integration of learning and life seemed to have underestimated the extent to which adults effectively integrate major learning efforts into their lives. Through his research, Tough has made adult educators humbly wake up to the fact that their enterprise represents only a small portion of the total range of adult learning practices, and perhaps more importantly, he has made educators aware of the scientific gains to be made through exploration of adults' natural learning processes. It is again these natural processes to which Allen Tough turns his attention in his 1982 publication, INTENTIONAL CHANGES (Follet Publishing Company, Chicago, Ill.). This time Tough broadens the focus to include the total range of changes adults intentionally make, regardless of whether the changes are accomplished through a series of learning episodes, as was his subject in THE ADULT'S LEARNING PROJECTS, or in some other way. Two characteristics serve to define intentional changes, differentiating them from other changes, for inclusion in Tough's study. The first characteristic is choice-to be included a particular change must have been freely chosen by the person and not coerced in any way. An occupational change, for example, would be included if a subject chose to leave one occupation for another; but not included if one was forced to find new employment when prior employment was terminated. Similarly, a decision to become a parent would be included if chosen; not included if the result of unplanned pregnancy. A second definitive characteristic of intentional change was striving for action. To have intended to change alone was not enough; a subject must have actually taken steps toward achievement of the desired change. With "intentional change" thus defined, Tough used an intensive interview technique and trained interviewers to study the single most important or largest intentional change in a two-year period of each of 150 subjects chosen at random in selected cities in the United States, Canada, and the United Kingdom. Specific areas of inquiry were the types of intentional changes made by the subjects; the size and importance of these changes to self and others; and the change paths--strategies and resources--subjects used to select, plan, and implement their intentional changes.

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The first four chapters of INTENTIONAL CHANGES are devoted to analysis and interpretation of the research data, integrating at relevant points comparisons to the findings of other researchers as well as Tough's own thoughtful commentaries. Tough is particularly thorough and explicit in interpreting even subtle details of the intensive interviews conducted in the course of his study. The balance of the book (four additional chapters and an extensive appendix) is devoted to what Tough sees as the most significant implications of his and related studies.

INTENTIONAL CHANGES is written entirely in the first person through which style Tough speaks to the reader in a candid, personable manner, occasionally interjecting his own personal experiences as they relate to the central topic of self-directed change. At points, he coaxes readers to pause and reflect on their own change experiences to gain perspective and greater appreciation of the intentional change processes of others. Tough's discourse smoothly alternates between objective quantitative analysis of research data and affective contemplation. He slips comfortably from social scientist, explaining complex relationships demonstrated in data analysis, to special interest advocate, advising a reorientation to the helping professions and demanding shifts in academic practices. "Surely the appropriate time has arrived," he charges, "for a unified science of intentional human change" (p. 23). It is important to note that Tough's propensity for mingling highly subjective, qualitative commentary with objective quantitative analysis is managed in such a way as not to compromise the scientific integrity of the study. The style, unconventional perhaps, is highly readable; and, to this reader at least, compelling.

As previously indicated, Tough's research design employed an intensive interview technique, trained interviewers, and 150 randomly selected subjects in nine locations in three countries. Further, there were 180 additional interviews conducted by graduate students as course projects, which, although not included in the quantitative data for the study, "contributed significantly to the ideas for the book" (p. 15). Several serious threats to internal and external validity arise from procedural problems in Tough's research design and should be noted here. First, the size of the nine samples as well as the selection procedures represent serious weaknesses. Although the research team sought to increase representativeness in the total sample by pulling small samples in three locations--urban, rural, and semi-rural--in each of three countries, the size of samples in each strata (unreported) could not have been of adequate size to generalize to the populations from which they were drawn. Secondly, there was little consistency in the sampling procedure among the nine strata--"most of the interviewees were selected at random from municipal voters' or assessment lists or from the telephone book. Some were selected by knocking on doors in various neighborhoods" (p. 15). Further, these populations mentioned as sources of samples for most of the interviews are far less than ideal since only small percentages of the adult populations of most communities appear on voter registration, assessment, and telephone listings. Although Tough does not specifically account for these sampling problems, to his credit he does seem to recognize a general inferential weakness and reconciles it as follows:

"Because of inevitable sampling errors and response errors, we cannot be certain whether similar results will be found in large-scale studies in other locations in the future. No doubt the numbers will change somewhat as future researchers survey other nations and other parts of the United States, the United Kingdom, and Canada. I

am confident, however, that the general picture will prove to be reasonably accurate for many populations, even though the particular figures will vary a little. As the interview data arrived in my mail from a great diversity of interviewers in widely scattered regions, I was struck by the remarkable consistency in the basic patterns from one sample to another" (p. 16).

Aside from threats to the external validity of Tough's research owing to sampling procedures, some questions of internal validity arise due to the interview methodology. In conducting the intensive interview, Tough advises that "it is essential that interviews be sufficiently leisurely, with plenty of probing and dialogue" (p. 163). In addition to the interview schedule, he provided interviewers with a list of supplementary, and optional, questions and comments for use in "studying difficulties, task details, and additional needs" (p. 172). This interview procedure, while enabling a deep understanding of the dynamics of one's intentional change, may become highly subjective, as well as render difficulties in maintaining consistency among interviews. Further, it is apparent that although all interviewers were trained in the technique by Tough, such training consisted of a graduate course which interviewers had taken at different times over a four-year period. This lends some further question of consistency across interviews. There were no tests of inter-rater reliability conducted to control for possible problems in this regard.

Although the apparent problems with Tough's research methods are many when considered against accepted standards of formal descriptive research design, it is important that readers, and reviewers, consider Tough's study for what it is, and for what is intended by it. "This book," writes Tough, "both confirms (because the findings exhibit a similar pattern) and enlarges the research on the adult's learning projects (Tough, THE ADULT'S LEARNING PROJECTS, 1971).... It demonstrates that men and women are remarkably successful at choosing, planning, and implementing intentional changes, with most help being obtained from friends and family rather than from books or professionals" (pp. 14-15). And further, "Intentional Changes is written for professionals, policy makers, and the academic community in several fields concerned with intentional changes.... The book will not only give such readers a better understanding of a central phenomenon in their fields, but will also suggest several specific implications for improved practice and policy and for future research" (p. 14). J. Roby Kidd is quoted in the foreword, "Allen has found a question worth probing and a means of better understanding and reporting on human behavior. He has begun to explore in a different dimension.... He brings back news, and there will be more to come from fellow explorers" (p. 11). INTENTIONAL CHANGES should not be viewed as a formal descriptive research project in the behavioral science tradition, but rather, as Kidd suggests, an exploration into a little-understood facet of human behavior through qualitative naturalistic inquiry. The professional literature has in recent years emphasized a need for grounded theory, as first discussed by Glaser and Strauss (in Merriam, 1989), as well as other qualitative approaches to research in adult education (Brookfield, 1983; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Merriam, 1988; Usher and

Bryant, 1989). According to advocates, these approaches focus attention on the development of theory rather than its testing, and are needed to build and strengthen theoretical foundations on which to base future empirical studies. Tough's work exemplifies just such a foundation.

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Several adult development theorists, Gould, Sheehy, Neugarten, and others, have suggested age-related life stages which explain motivations for change. Others, such as Aslanian, have suggested that life events, not age-related stages, "trigger" adult motivations to change (Chickering, 1975; Merriam, 1984). Tough's INTENTIONAL CHANGES, unfortunately, sheds precious little light on the debate. Although why adults choose to change was not a part of Tough's study ("Penetrating insights into why adults choose to change will require much further study"), he does point out that "much can be inferred from their (the interviewees) choices" (p. 15). He does not, however, make any such inferences himself. Although Tough does indicate that his study found most intentional changes reported "were not particularly related to the person's age or stage in life" (p. 35), this is the extent of his consideration of the adult life cycle and motivations for change. Some further analysis and discussion by Tough would have been useful on this point.

In summation, there are three central themes implied by Allen Tough's INTENTIONAL CHANGES that to this reviewer are particularly germane to adult education practice. First is the resounding theme of cleavage between the professional field of adult education, as well as other helping professions, and the actual practice of human learning and change. Clearly, while adult education and other helping professionals strive to provide a vast array of opportunities to enable and facilitate adult learning and change, these resources contribute less than five percent to the selection, plan, and implementation of changes adults intentionally make, whereas fully seventy percent of the credit for such change-tasks go to the changing person himself or herself. Nonprofessional friends, neighbors, and family members of the changer contribute approximately twenty percent to the person's change path. A surprisingly small three-percent credit for change contribution is made by non human resources such as books, television, and other media. These findings point to the central importance of the person's natural learning and change processes in adult development. Adult education professionals need to determine least-obtrusive ways and methods to "fit in" to these natural human processes--supporting and strengthening them--rather than attempting to mold adults to learning and change strategies devised by professionals apart from the individual. Such approaches were classified by Brookfield (1983) as adult education "in" the community and differentiated from approaches "for," and "of" the community, and have recently been discussed at length by Galbraith and Price (in press) and by Price (in press). A second and related central theme of Tough's work is what he calls an "optimum range of control" (p. 106) which professionals need to seek in their work with adults. Devoting a full chapter to this topic, Tough points out a propensity for over-control by

educators in higher and adult education, other service providers, and in public policy. He traces some of the causes of over-control and discusses some possible remedies. A third theme of INTENTIONAL CHANGES that is of particular benefit to adult educators is the research methodology employed in the study. Tough's research demonstrates that important gains in educational and behavioral science can be made through the use of intensive, probing interviews and other qualitative naturalistic methods. INTENTIONAL CHANGES further demonstrates-in that Tough employed extensive statistical analysis of case study field notes-the fruitfulness of complementing qualitatively generated data with quantitative analysis, an approach increasingly recommended in the adult education research literature (Brookfield, 1983; Merriam, 1988). Jerrold Apps (in Deshler and Hagan, 1989) has suggested that adult education research is caught up in positivist empirism, the dominant scientific paradigm of schools of education, and that adult educators need to be more open to naturalistic approaches. In our zeal to gain scientific legitimacy through formal experimental, quasi-experimental, and quantitative descriptive studies we have overlooked the need for and importance of grounded theory. Tough's findings make a substantial contribution to a much-needed knowledge base in the behavioral sciences. Further qualitative inquiry of this kind into adult learning behavior is needed to broaden and strengthen this foundation if adult education is to continue to mature as a field of professional practice and study.

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F R O M T H E E D I T O R S' D E S K

ELECTRONIC PUBLISHING PUTS BYTE INTO ACADEMIC PUBLISHING

by

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Introduction

Electronic publishing, the use of computers and electronic networks like BITNET for the production and distribution of ideas, puts publishing and distribution in the hands of more people than ever before. Some would say it is another step in the "democratization" of mass communications. However, it is also reviving old issues among scholars. Who controls publishing? Who oversees quality control? What is the role of electronic publishing in the tenure/promotion process?

In addition, new questions and new possibilities come to mind in light of electronic publishing. How will researchers retrieve or trace information distributed in an electronic format? Will readers and writers of scholarly articles become collaborators in the writing process as they read and react to electronic articles? Who will bear

the cost of supporting equitable access to electronic networks and thus electronic publications?

Questions like these have a direct bearing on all those who manage, read, or write for journals like NEW HORIZONS. What follows is a distillation of ideas raised at a conference held at Syracuse University in the Spring of 1989--"The Impact of Desktop Publishing on University Life," March 13-14, 1989--and explored in articles related to the conference and to scholarly communication (Burstyn, 1989; DeLoughry, 1989; Rogers, 1989).

Electronic Journals and University Life

"I think desktop publishing, in conjunction with electronic networks, is fashioning a communications revolution that will have a dramatic impact on the culture of the university," wrote Joan Burstyn, a member of the School of Education faculty at Syracuse University and an organizer of the conference (Burstyn, 1989). The presenters and participants in the conference agreed, although they did not all agree on what the impact would be.

Desktop publishing, the process of using computers and printers to produce quality printed materials, has already given individual academics, departments, and colleges the tools to produce visually attractive print materials at a cost below that of conventional publishers, at a faster rate, and for audiences of any size. The last ability means scholars can produce more materials for specialty audiences than was possible before desktop publishing or on-line publishing.

Representatives of academic presses were quick to remind conference participants that producing copy is really only a part of publishing. Established academic presses and journals provide expertise in design, marketing, advertising, distribution, quality control, and credibility that cannot be sustained by the average academician. Self-printed publications and on-line publications cannot offer the guaranteed audiences that conventional publishers offer (DeLoughry, 1989). On the other hand, Rogers and Hurt (1989) contend that scholarly journals are "obsolete as the primary vehicle for scholarly communication;" scholars are already creating important new knowledge outside the scholarly-journal process.

Discussion at the conference highlighted a tension that exists between the speed and ease of desktop publishing and the needs within the academic community to trace ideas and to retrieve them through such things as library holdings, back issues of journals, or citations. Conference participants were asked to think about the ephemeral nature of desktop or electronic publishing--the "bibliographic morass" and "ghost citations" it creates--and what might need to be done to set up archives and bibliographic guidelines for such material.

The Syracuse conference participants discussed the fact that

publishers ratify a scholar's "tenurability." Desktop publishing and electronic journals change or challenge the "gatekeeping" function within academia served by publishing according to the "status hierarchy of publication outlets." Tenure committees may have to assess a scholar's publication record by some other criteria than those of the established journal. By the same token, the academic community may come to expect greater productivity from scholars if electronic publishing replaces the scholarly-journal process.

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Most speakers at the conference believed that some sort of peer review process would remain in place, acting as a "signpost of credibility." The role of editors and editorial boards may shift, however, from "filter" to "verifier" or "enabler." According to Kenneth C. Green, Associate Director of the Higher Education Research Institute at the University of California at Los Angeles, the blind review and publication of text in electronic form would mark "a transformation of peer review from a static to a dynamic activity, with more opportunity and some risk for those engaging in it, and with a better outcome" (DeLoughry, 1989, p. A16). Electronic distribution provides broader interaction with readers and makes for an expanding network of colleagues. Joan Burstyn pointed out that peer review, editing, and revision in on-line publishing could take place as a paper is written and read, thus making collaborative writing another issue for promotion and tenure committees as well as for editors.

Equity and Access

Desktop and electronic publishing technology is now available, functioning, and here to stay. The Syracuse conference participants considered many questions of equity and access over their two days together.

Several questions were raised. Will there be equality between an article published traditionally and electronically? While we can accelerate peer review, can we accelerate the credibility of on-line publishing? With money as a critical factor in areas of equity and access, who will pay? The university? The individual? Will access to electronic journals or electronic libraries only be available to those who can afford mainframe services (e.g., universities, departments, scholars, etc.)? If electronic material is always accessible, how can it be protected? What is "fair use" in electronic publishing? Will we need "image copyright" as well as "written copyright?"

In general, technology will always be ahead of the users. However, institutions affect the use of technology; they can legitimize and enhance the use of technology. Conference participants discussed the importance of institutions providing training to those who wish to write for or read on-line publications. Universities could work to lower costs and build future systems designed for naive users. Universities could also take the "hassle" out of network access and make it pervasive. Institutions could further work to enhance the credibility of electronic publishing by adjusting promotion and

tenure practices and providing prospective authors with "templates, and printed examples" illustrative of quality on-line publishing.

Conclusion

In their article on scholarship in the next century, Rogers and Hurt (1989) argued convincingly for the establishment of an electronic, scholarly, communication network that would link colleges and universities nationwide. Such a 21st century network would address many of the issues raised at the Syracuse conference on desktop publishing in academia: the use of electronic networks to encourage greater interaction between authors and readers, more equitable tenure and promotion procedures, systematic logging and tracking of electronic publications, new peer review processes, and collaborative financing for the mutual benefit of institutions, scholars, and students.

NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION, its readers, and its authors currently face many of the concerns raised at the conference. With other on-line journals, we provide experience to the field of adult education in the use of network publishing and interactive readership. We also provide the impetus for asking anew questions of control, quality, and equity in the creation and distribution of knowledge. Innovations like NEW HORIZONS and the network discussed in the previous paragraph require much more than the technological ability to bring them into existence. The academic community must begin to recognize the revolutionary aspects of electronic publishing and work to develop the values, policies, and practices that can turn this technological sword into a plowshare.

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C A L L F O R M A N U S C R I P T S
in
Community Adult Education

FILE: HORIZO4 TXT A1 S.U. COMPUTING AND NETWORK SERVICES VM/SP

From the Editors

Linda Newell
Syracuse University

David Price
University of Columbia-Missouri

NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION, a refereed academic journal, solicits manuscripts for its Fall/Winter 1991 special issue. The editors seek submissions of original research, conceptual analyses, case studies, and book reviews relating to community-based adult education efforts. Examples of appropriate submissions include articles that convey concepts, methods, and approaches in community development and local social action, community health education, participatory community economic development, community-based literacy work, community leadership development, and community learning.

Faculty, graduate students, practitioners, and others concerned with adult education in the community context are welcome to submit articles. All submissions to NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION are double-blind reviewed by four editorial board members. Submissions must be authors' original work and not previously published. For consideration, manuscripts should be submitted to the editors on or before November 15, 1990.

MANUSCRIPT PREPARATION: There are no length requirements, but authors should recognize that reviewers will evaluate articles to see that the subject and substance warrants the length. Submitted articles should include the title of the manuscript, full names, institutional affiliations, and positions of the authors. Manuscripts should conform to the rules governing manuscript style and references outlined in the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (APA), Third Edition. Text and references normally underscored should instead be typed in upper case (all caps). Authors should use written text explanations of concepts and data rather than diagrams or graphics; simple tabular data, when necessary to article content, may be included.

FORM OF SUBMISSION: NEW HORIZONS accepts manuscripts in the following forms:
1) Electronic mail transmitted via BITNET to the NEW HORIZONS electronic address: HORIZONS@SUVM.BITNET.
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ABOUT THE JOURNAL: NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION, founded in

1987, is a refereed journal published by the Syracuse University Kellogg Project. It is electronically transmitted to subscribers' personal computers via mainframe computers. The journal is managed by graduate student editors in cooperation with an international editorial board also comprised of graduate students. There is no cost for subscription to or back issues of NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION. Issues are sent free of charge to all subscribers to the Adult Education Network (AEDNET), an international electronic network of adult educators. Journal subscription and membership in AEDNET is made by request via electronic mail to AEDNET@SUVM.BITNET. Paper copies of the journal may be obtained by sending a written request to the journal office at 310 Lyman Hall, 108 College Place, Syracuse, N.Y. 13244-1270. NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION is indexed and abstracted by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education.

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N E W H O R I Z O N S IN A D U L T E D U C A T I O N

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NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION
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EDITORS' PREFACE

This special thematic issue of NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION is devoted to theory and practice in community adult education. The community-based practice of adult education, although it has long comprised an important component of the adult education enterprise, has recently emerged and flourished as a distinctive area of professional practice. Whereas other specialties organize around provider agency types, specific curricular areas and market demands, community adult education is context oriented, shaped by the special characteristics and dynamics of community life. Community adult education thus encompasses a diversity of organizational providers, content areas, and learner types. The single unifying element is the context of practice - the community - through which practitioners have generated a rich diversity of approaches and methods to facilitate learning and change. This issue of NEW HORIZONS, which consists of four articles, is devoted to this unique and exciting area of adult education practice.

COMMUNITY ADULT EDUCATION IN AMERICA; AN OVERVIEW, by Michael W. Galbraith and David W. Price, contributes a comprehensive survey of community adult education practice in North America. This invited piece examines the concepts and methods of community adult education practice, reviews programs and providers in the North American experience, and explores the future of community adult education. Michael has written extensively in the field of adult education including recent publications in rural and community adult education. He is an Associate Professor of Adult Education at Temple University. David's professional experience includes rural community development and adult and extension education, and he has published in the areas of extension education and community adult education. Currently, he is a Ph.D. candidate in Higher and Adult Education at the University of Missouri.

Linda Ziegahn provides the second invited article, COMMUNITY ADULT EDUCATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES, which examines community adult education practice in an international context. Her article describes and analyzes the various formats, methods, concepts, and key issues germane to the practice of community adult education in developing countries. Linda draws on extensive professional experience, research, and teaching in international and adult education. She is an Assistant Professor of Adult Education at Syracuse University.

The third article, FACILITATED COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT IN A RURAL AREA, by Allen B. Moore and Mary Anne Lahey, is a case history of an ongoing community development project in the American rural south. This refereed article offers us a rare glimpse into the role of adult educator as change agent in the community development process. It also highlights the organizational mechanics of facilitating broad-based community participation. Their case study chronicles an holistic and integrated approach to planned community change wherein various organizational providers cooperate to address the diverse needs of rural community members. Allen B. Moore is an Associate Professor at the Institute of Community and Area Development and Department of Adult Education at The University of Georgia, and Mary Anne Lahey, also at the Institute of Community and Area Development at The University of Georgia, is a Public Service Assistant.

The second refereed article is an interpretive review of ENVISIONING A SUSTAINABLE SOCIETY: LEARNING OUR WAY OUT (Mibraith, 1989) by Daniel V. Eastmond. Daniel analyzes Milbraith's ideas for addressing global environmental issues which revolve around the concept of social learning, and the essential role of adult learners and educators in creating and sustaining a learning society founded in environmentally sound principles and practices. Milbraith's ideas, as reviewed by Dan, promote an ethical perspective and a broad agenda for community adult education practice. Dan is a Doctoral Student in Adult Education at Syracuse University.

The four articles within this community adult education issue demonstrate the inextricable link between adult learning, social change, and development in the community context. It is our hope that this special thematic issue will promote renewed recognition of these dynamic linkages and their value to adult education practice.

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COMMUNITY ADULT EDUCATION IN AMERICA: AN OVERVIEW

by

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Community adult education can be considered a distinct area of

professional practice within the field of adult education. It is within this aspect of adult education that most programs, instructional processes, and adult learning needs are realized, scrutinized, and analyzed. Galbraith (1990a) suggests that the community is a natural setting for the adult education process and that

"conceptualizing the community and adult education helps us to understand the connection they both have to society at large" (p.7). Both terms, community and adult education, are multidimensional. Connecting community and adult education contributes to the stimulation of the lifelong education process associated with adulthood. Community adult education recognizes that learning occurs throughout life (the vertical dimension) and that any learning is a result of prior learning, which in turn influences the nature and extent of future learning, whether it be through formal, nonformal, or informal processes. In addition, it recognizes and accepts the principle that education is for all age levels and that the ability to learn and grow continues over a lifetime. Community adult education also supports the horizontal dimension of lifelong education which stresses that education and life in the community are linked. Education is viewed as continuous throughout the lifespan and on a continuum that accepts the integration of school and life, as well as the multitude of various educational components that influence adult life. Perhaps the most salient feature of life-long education, which community adult education holds adamantly, is the belief that adult learners can effectively and meaningfully acquire the ability and skill to learn how to learn. They can learn how to adapt and change to whatever situation they encounter. In all cases, this situation is presented in some component or context of formal, nonformal, or informal community adult education in which adult learners come to recognize their identity, potential, and significance.

Community adult education helps build communities of learners by recognizing that community-based organizations, community adult educators, and community adult learners must make choices in the development, construction, and realization of educational opportunities (Galbraith, 1990b). It is the purpose of this article to examine the concepts of community and community adult education, the methods utilized within community adult education, as well as a framework for understanding its programs and providers. In addition, we will briefly explore the future of community adult education in America by examining various societal trends that will influence its direction.

COMMUNITY AND COMMUNITY ADULT EDUCATION

. Numerous definitions of the concept "community" have been advanced in the professional literature, each emphasizing various and alternative features and dimensions. The geographical or spatial concept of community as place is one commonly held view. However, other definitions emphasize human interaction and relationships within places, and commonalities in interests, values, and mores.

These are often denoted in the casual use of terms such as "sense of community," and "community interests." It is primarily the locational and geographic definition of community to which we refer in this discussion of community adult education, since it is largely within the geographical context that the resources and provisions for

lifelong education practice are realized.

Several nongeographical views of community have been advanced, which merit particular attention. Brookfield (1983a) has suggested "communities of interest" and "communities of function," which may supersede geographic boundaries. Communities of interest are groups of individuals bound by some single common interest or set of common interests. This category is wide-ranging, including leisure interests (hobbies, sports, and various recreational interests), civic and special political interests (better government, improved health care, prolife or prochoice concerns, environmental protection) as well as the communities of interest formed around particular spiritual and religious beliefs and affiliations. Communities of function are those groups identified by the function of major life-roles, including vocational and professional (teachers, attorneys, mechanics, street workers, small business operators, farmers), as well as other major life-role functions such as those of homemaker, student, and parent. As is readily apparent, communities of interest, communities of function, and geographic communities intersect and overlap.

Another typology of the concept of community is derived from the field of educational marketing. Besides the geographic concept of community, demographic and psychographic communities exist. Demographic communities are groups bound by common demographic characteristics such as race, sex, age cohort, religion, and occupation. It is not uncommon to speak of "the Black community" or "the elderly community." Psychographic communities are those formed by commonality of value systems, social class, life-style, special interests, and hobbies. A psychographic community, for example, may be the "yuppy community," the "gay community," or the "golfing community." Nonlocational conceptions of community bear special consideration in community adult education practice on two particularly salient points. First, it is precisely these nongeographic features of community through which formal, nonformal, and informal adult learning is facilitated, and by which adult educational programs often are designed. Such concepts of community stem from the particular needs and interests of adult learners. Programming based on clientele needs and interests has been a hallmark of community adult education since its inception as a professional practice (DeLargy, 1989). So persistent and integral has been the notion of meeting the needs of learners that it has become a shibboleth in the rhetoric of the field. Second, the nonlocational conceptions of community transcend geographic boundaries, calling attention to the fact that while community adult education relies principally on the geographic concept of community, the extra community patterns of interaction impact markedly on

community-based programs. Some community adult educators, in fact, argue the merits of dismissing altogether the locational emphasis of community, focusing instead on the commonalities of interests, concerns, and functions of people in operationalizing the concept (Blakely, 1989; Roberts, 1979). New theory and practice,

suggests Blakely (1989), "must now consider the absence of geographic or territorial consciousness rather than the presence of it" (p. 313). Although in our view the geographical emphasis remains the single most definitive feature of the concept of community for the practice of community adult education, these other dimensions cannot be dismissed or regarded as irrelevant. Indeed, to do so would rob the concept of certain emotive and practical qualities that are particularly germane to lifelong education.

THE METHODS OF COMMUNITY ADULT EDUCATION

The community-based practice of adult education draws on a broad range of educational strategies and methods. To some extent the particular aims and objectives of the practitioner and the provider agency will determine the dominant methods used. The organizational culture of the provider agency, as well as the particular values of the educator, will also influence the types of methods employed (Nadler & Wiggs, 1986; Ellis, 1990). One commonly cited typology of adult education methods divides practices into formal, nonformal, and informal modes, suggesting a continuum of structure and formality (Ellis, 1990; Galbraith, 1990a; Jarvis, 1987; Price, 1990; Roberts, 1979). The formal mode is generally characterized by high curricular structure, bureaucratic organizational setting, and credentialing i.e., the award of certificates or degrees. Methods in the nonformal mode exhibit less curricular structure, nonbureaucratic organization, and usually no credentialing. The informal mode of educational practice emphasizes learning processes in the natural societal setting, and is characterized by low curricular structure and an absence of bureaucratic organization and credentialing.

The methods chosen in community adult education practice may largely determine the types of learners served. According to Ellis (1990), less formal approaches are particularly suited to marginalized and disenfranchised members of society. He notes that "those who find themselves denied access to power in society develop for themselves a whole informal framework in which they operate with great skill and effectiveness....they understand instinctively that the whole system [of formal adult education] is designed to deny them access to the power structures" (p. 92). The more formal the educational mode, suggests Ellis, the more "up-market" learner groups become. The degree of formality and curricular structure also relates to control over the learning situation. Clearly, formal community adult education methods place the greater degree of control over the teaching-learning transaction in the hands of the educator, whereas informal methods invest a high degree of control in the learner. Methods in the nonformal mode typically

exhibit a balance of control between educator and learner.

The effective practice of community adult education requires a diverse methodology. Although several factors such as organizational culture, educator values, and learner characteristics

combine to determine one's principle mode of program delivery, community adult educators typically incorporate elements of all three modes into their methodological repertoire. Thus, formal and nonformal educational programs frequently have informal interludes, just as informal educational efforts take frequent advantage of more formalized structures (Jeffs & Smith, 1990; Price, 1990).

PROGRAMS AND PROVIDERS

Various frameworks and classifications have been developed that attempt to capture the essence of the adult education delivery system (Apps, 1989; Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982; Kowalski, 1988; Schroeder, 1970). The most recent framework developed has been by Apps (1989) in which he identifies four provider categories: tax supported, nonprofit, for-profit, and nonorganized. He bases his framework "on the assumption that adult learners have choices for learning opportunities" (p. 279) and that learners can engage in deliberate and nondeliberate learning within all four categories. A tax-supported agency or institution may consist of adult public schools, four-year colleges and universities, community and technical colleges, cooperative extension, armed forces, libraries, and museums. The nonprofit category would comprise religious institutions, health institutions, community-based agencies, service clubs, voluntary organizations, professional associations, and worker education programs. Correspondence schools, proprietary schools, private tutoring, publications, human resource development programs in business and industry, and conference centers are examples of for-profit providers. Apps's fourth category is concerned with nonorganized learning opportunities such as through the mass media, work setting, family, travel, and recreational and leisure-time activities.

In connecting the concepts of community and adult education, Brookfield (1983b) proposed a threefold typology of community adult education according to characteristic approaches employed by providers. These are adult education FOR, IN, and OF the community, and can easily be identified within Apps' framework of providers mentioned above.

Adult Education for the Community

Central to adult education FOR the community is a consumer-oriented and market sensitive modus operandi. Specific programs are designed and delivered in response to perceived clientele interests within a specified agency service area. Programs FOR the community tend to be formal courses, workshops, seminars, or short

courses; and program content is wide-ranging, depending on the availability of resource persons, cost-effectiveness, and marketability. In the context of lifelong education, such community

adult education program approaches contribute to the satisfaction of the ongoing expressed and felt needs and interests of learning-activity oriented community members.

One of the more prevalent examples of community adult education for the community is the publicly sponsored community school. Responsible for addressing community educational needs and interests through the public school system, community school programs provide a broad spectrum of courses and workshops for adults. Class offerings often include technical and occupational courses (computing skills, beginning real estate), leisure and recreational courses (angling, home horticulture, various arts and crafts classes), family and personal improvement (parenting, family finance, stress management, auto repair), and personal enrichment topics (foreign languages, various music classes, etc.). Classes are typically offered during evenings and weekends in public school facilities, and taught by local community members interested in sharing their particular skills and talents through part-time teaching. The community school program in the United States is most often financed through a mix of state and local monies, and coordinated by a professional community school director employed by the local school district. Community school programs in Canada are more likely to be locally financed, and sponsored by nonprofit agencies such as community development corporations and economic development groups, rather than being attached to public schools (DeLargy, 1989).

A prominent feature of the rural community adult education landscape is the adult educational services of the United States Cooperative Extension Service (CES). Mandated by an Act of Congress since 1913 (Smith-Lever Act), the CES serves to link the resources of state land grant universities with the educational needs of adults in rural communities. Programs are carried out by professional and paraprofessional staffs through county extension centers. They involve a variety of formal, nonformal, and informal educational approaches, and address clientele-identified needs in the principle areas of agriculture, home economics, and community resource development. Many specific extension service projects and efforts characteristically reflect programmatic approaches IN and OF the community rather than FOR the community, as here indicated. However, taken as a whole, and given the organization's pervasive and historical commitment to locally-determined needs, the agency is first a provider of adult education FOR the community. This may shift. As a result of several pressures, including fiscal austerity, increased concern for accountability, and demographic and socioeconomic changes, the CES nationwide is at present undergoing a fundamental transition in its mission and approaches to serving rural America. At the heart of the change is a shift away from a primarily locally-driven needs determination and reactive mode of program

development, and toward a national and regional issues-based approach to educational needs and proactive mode of program

development. This may signal as well a shift from educational programming FOR the community toward an emphasis on adult education OF the community.

Municipal recreation departments also provide a variety of leisure and recreation adult educational programs for the community. Educational services may include adult swimming classes, classes in various sports (tennis, angling), nature studies, and arts and crafts workshops and courses. Programs are typically supported through a mix of course fees and municipal revenues. Senior citizen centers or older-adult activity centers are another source of adult education programs for the community. Established and financed primarily through state funds, senior centers provide a variety of services, including adult educational programs for enrichment, self-improvement, and in various skill areas. Public health agencies and hospitals, in addition to their primary role as health care providers, in many communities offer adult health-related educational programs for the community.

The community college has, since its inception, served as a principle provider of adult education for the community (Cohen & Brawer, 1989; Van Tilburg & Moore, 1989). In addition to its academic collegiate functions, many community colleges offer a wide variety of noncredit adult education workshops, courses, and seminars depending on expressed community interests. Community adult education programs through the community college are usually subsumed under the rubric community services (Shearon & Tollefson, 1989), and coordinated by a professional community services coordinator. Shearon and Tollefson (1989) suggest the likelihood that the community service functions of community colleges will continue to increase and expand during the 1990s.

Private and nonprofit educational institutions also provide education for the community. The Adult Learning Center in Nashua, New Hampshire is a private, nonprofit corporation that is organized to provide relevant educational programs for disadvantaged and undereducated area residents. Their programs include such things as ABE, GED, ESL, and life-skill classes, vocational programs that deal with computer literacy, resume construction, and word processing, as well as career planning and counseling. In Stilwell, Oklahoma, the Flaming Rainbow University primarily serves Cherokee Indians and other low-income and educationally underserved populations of northeastern Oklahoma. Their programs are life-centered with a curriculum that is designed to incorporate job and life experiences, community and tribal involvements, and a cross-cultural environment.

Adult Education in the Community

This second type of community adult education identified by

Brookfield (1983b) seeks to encourage, support, and enhance the educational features of community activities as they emerge in the natural course of community life. In this mode of practice the

community adult educator serves as a resource person, encourager, and process facilitator for the educational dimensions inherent in the activities of various community groups. Moreover, the practitioner often catalyzes valuable learning processes among group members, which may otherwise fail to emerge, in the context of ongoing community group efforts. The educator becomes immersed in the life of the community and seeks to fit into and influence the natural learning processes of individuals and groups. This approach to the community is referred to by one analyst as "justified community infiltration" (Polsky, 1978) and is strongly recommended by the findings of Canadian adult learning researcher Allen Tough (1982). This approach to community adult education recognizes and focuses professional attention on the vast and largely unrecognized portion of adult learning occurring in the natural course of individual and community life (Brookfield, 1983b). Adult education IN the community, however, is not limited to group work but also includes practices that support and enhance the self-initiated and self-guided learning efforts undertaken by individual community members, by providing such learners with, for example, resource information and materials, advice and educational consultation. Whether in the group or individual context, the important distinction between this mode of practice and other forms of community adult education is that community members themselves control all determinations of content, format, and duration of the educational episodes in which they engage (Brookfield, 1983b).

As is apparent, community adult education IN the community typically incorporates nonformal and informal adult education practices. Included in this category, however, are those formal community adult education practices that use the community environment as a learning resource or laboratory, wherein program participants study various aspects of community life and functions. Site visits to local institutions (industries or governmental offices, for example), personal interviews with community members, windshield surveys of local neighborhoods followed by group discussion and analysis, and in-classroom presentations by local experts are some techniques exemplifying this form of community adult education.

In the context of lifelong education, programs of adult education IN the community contribute greatly to the dimension of learning how to learn. Whether in the informal and nonformal educational modes characteristic of community group efforts and individual self-directed learning projects, or in the more formal class using the community as a laboratory, participants learning in the community develop knowledge, skills, attitudes, and other competencies for learning from and in their community environment. Further, the horizontal dimension of lifelong education is emphasized and strengthened through this type of community adult education practice.

Describing programs and providers of adult education practice IN the community is an ambiguous and elusive task. Few, if any, agency providers conform wholly to this community adult education form, but rather, a myriad of community-based providers incorporate, somewhat unevenly, education in the community into their broader educational agendas. From the previous discussion, three distinct manifestations of adult education IN the community are noted: education through infiltration and influence of community action groups, community as learning resource for organized adult education classes, and support for self-directed learning. The technique of infiltration and influence is most often associated with community organization and development practitioners and agencies. Although their efforts are properly classified as education OF the community, given their characteristically held perspective of community deficiency, much of the work in this field of community practice emphasizes supportive and enabling educational functions with group participants engaged in community action efforts (Morris, 1970; Rothman & Tropman, 1987). Thus, the infiltration and influence approach to adult education in the community is seen in the work of community development specialists employed by the Cooperative Extension Service, community workers for the federally/state supported community action agencies, church and community workers associated with rural and urban ministries, economic development specialists employed by chambers of commerce, and a host of other community-based organizations and practitioners.

The use of the community as a learning resource for organized classes is, unfortunately, an all-too-infrequently used adult education method (Brookfield, 1983b). Such approaches, however, do find occasional application through the community service course offerings in community colleges, community schools, and county extension service programs. A County Extension Homemakers Council in Howell County, Missouri, for example, sponsors an annual "local government day" in which members of the Extension-sponsored homemaker clubs county-wide visit offices of city and county government to hear informal presentations by local officials on the functions and operations of their offices. The visits are followed by a group meeting led by an extension educator in which participants discuss and critique their experiences. Similar programs sponsored by county extension centers have taken community members to local manufacturing plants, specialized farm operations, and other rural community institutions.

Support for the self-directed learning efforts of community members include, among other things, the provision of informational brochures, guides, books, videotapes, and other learning resources on a variety of subject areas, and the provision of advice and educational counseling. Libraries and their staffs have traditionally served as important learning resources for self-directed learners (Neehall & Tough, 1983; Sisco & Whitson, 1990), as have CES county extension centers and staffs, from which informational and practical

how-to bulletins on topics ranging from parenting skills to farm and home water supplies to repairing leaky faucets are disseminated. Commercial noneducational institutions also contribute to the informational demands of adult self-directed learning projects. Many building supply and hardware retailers, for example, display racks of free how-to fliers that aid people in planning and executing various home repair and building construction projects, and retailers themselves offer customer advice on such projects. Similarly, financial institutions, medical, dental, and optometry offices, and various other public and private community institutions serve as learning resources for adults interested in gaining awareness, knowledge, and skills in subjects relevant to their daily lives. Recognition of the value to community adult education of such commonplace learning resources present in the community, and potentials for their enhancement, has been emphasized in the research and writings of Brookfield (1983a, 1983b), Galbraith (1990a), Hiemstra (1972), Knowles (1984), and Tough (1982).

Adult Education of the Community

In the third type of community adult education practice identified, program approaches are strongly prescriptive (Brookfield, 1983b). The community is viewed by the provider as deficient or lacking in certain features or qualities, be it effective leadership, self-reliance skills, esprit de corps, or economic viability. A gap between what is and what ought to be is perceived by the provider. Educational programs, then, are geared to address the deficiencies and narrow the gap. Several community adult educators use the concept of community health to describe such desired community qualities (Brookfield, 1983b; Lackey, Burke, & Peterson, 1987); others have used the terms "good community," "competent community," and "community well-being" (Lackey, Burke, & Peterson, 1987, p. 2). In a 1987 article, Lackey, Burke, and Peterson propose essential attributes of a healthy community as consisting of certain "(1) attitudes and values, (2) capacities, (3) organization and (4) leadership" (p. 3). Programs in this category are distinctive in their normative approach to the community. Whereas community adult education practitioners of the other two types respond to expressed and felt community needs and naturally occurring movements, the practitioner of adult education OF the community designs programs on the basis of his/her own perceptions and values of what constitutes a healthy community, and the attitudes and competencies desired of community members. According to Brookfield (1983b), "this avowedly prescriptive notion of community adult education is close to the classic tradition of citizenship training in which a vigorous, democratic society is seen as being dependent on the development of certain informed critical faculties among its members" (p. 157). This prescriptive approach to community adult education is not unlike the ideals of lifelong education in the

community, which itself can be viewed as a prescription for a healthy community.

One of the most prominent forms of the professional practice of adult education OF the community is community development. Although a great many definitions of community development are advanced in the literature, most emphasize an educational process dimension (Hamilton & Cunningham, 1989). Essentially, community development is an adult educational process whereby participants gain the attitudes, skills, and knowledge that empower them to achieve their mutually determined goals of community improvement and problem resolution. This particular form of community adult education practice is referred to by other names: "community education for development" (Compton & McClusky, 1980), "locality development" (Rothman & Tropman, 1987), and "community resource development" (Phifer, List, & Faulkner, 1980). However, "community development" appears to be the most widely accepted and durable of the appellations. Community development providers in North America include the Cooperative Extension Service, local governments, state agencies of community and economic development, and a variety of nonprofit organizations.

The specific accomplishments of community development projects vary widely, but some in recent years have included retail business development in economically declining rural towns and urban neighborhoods, the establishment of new occupational avenues for displaced farmers and for displaced homemakers, and the restoration and preservation of community historical sites, to name a few. One nonprofit community development organization of singular recognition is the Highlander Research and Education Center in New Market, Tennessee. Established in 1931, and particularly noted for leadership training in the southern labor movement of the 1930s and on behalf of civil rights in the 1950s, the Highlander Center has addressed issues of social justice through community adult education for nearly 60 years (Glen, 1988). Current programs of the Highlander Center include environmental issues and economic development (Highlander Research and Education Center, 1987).

Like the Highlander Center, many other community-based organizations found in American communities contribute to the specific educational, community, and personal development of adult learners. For example, the Dungannon Development Commission (DDC) in Dungannon, Virginia was formed in 1979 by 50 townspeople in an effort to improve the Dungannon community. The DDC works to promote the development of business concerns, to cooperate and work with the town of Dungannon, to engage in housing production to improve living conditions, and to serve the educational needs of its residents by working with a nearby community college in maintaining community-based classes for the rural community. Another example is the Federation of Southern Cooperatives, located in Epes, Alabama, which operates the Rural Training, Research and Demonstration-Farming Center, which also serves as the headquarters for the total economic development movement in the

South. The Federation's mission is to formulate and implement a

comprehensive rural economic development strategy. It serves 30,000 families organized in 120 cooperatives in various rural communities.

When discussing community adult education it is easy to generate various images. Some of these images will be of the providers of education, others will be of the adult learner or adult educator, while others will be of educational topics, agendas, and purposes. The information presented above covers many organizational forms that serve adult learners in the American community. Each holds as its primary focus educational opportunities for learners to engage in deliberate and nondeliberate learning that can enhance the intellectual, social, political, recreational, and professional aspects of their lives. The interaction of the dimensions of community, education provider, adult learner, and adult educator contributes to the development, structure, and implementation of effective community adult education programs. A recognition that American society holds this great potential for its adult learners can be realized through the various aspects of its communities.

THE FUTURE OF COMMUNITY ADULT EDUCATION

If community members accept the idea that education is a function reserved for childhood and adolescence, then the concept of lifelong education and the dynamic dimensions and opportunities that it presents will be lost. Galbraith and Sundet (1988) found in their study, which used a key informant analysis, that American culture seems to dictate that the function of education is more formal in nature and not a lifelong process that incorporates or accepts informal and nonformal mechanisms throughout adulthood as valid and meaningful education. The need exists for American society to understand the vertical and horizontal integration of lifelong education and the potential it holds for the development of effective community education for adult learners.

In addition, future forms, content, and value to individuals and society of community adult education in America will be influenced and shaped by various societal trends. Chief among these are demographic changes, technological changes (especially communications technologies), and the growing complexity of society itself. The aging of America suggests that the culture will give way to an older and more mature society and with it an increased demand in the educational marketplace for formats, methodologies, and content geared to the unique characteristics of adult learners. Cohen and Brawer (1989) suggest that the increase in adult community members will place greater demands on the community service functions of the community college. Other institutions of higher education must also reevaluate their missions, goals, and delivery modes if they are to effectively serve adult learners in the community (Apps, 1988; Treadway, 1984). Institutions must view

themselves as providers of nonformal as well as formal educational opportunities for all adult learners within their delivery systems.

They must respond to the continuing-education needs of the professional as well as the paraprofessional within communities who seek a response to professional and personal needs such as certification, licensure, stress management, caregiving of older parents, displacement from agricultural occupations, and unemployment. Demographic changes influence the demands placed upon all community adult education providers, thus calling out for greater interagency cooperation among educational, religious, social, and human service providers. Community adult educators can play an important role in the coordination and development of these linkages.

New technologies and the advent of the so-called information society will also markedly impact the American community. New communications technologies will give adults access to a multitude of opportunities for education (Black, 1986; Florini, 1990), as well as economic development opportunities. For example, economic development in rural areas, largely confined to extractive industries and highly dependent on transportation considerations, may more and more be based on an information economy enabled by communications rather than transportation. As telecommunications technologies build and enhance new extra-community patterns of interaction, rural and urban relationships will change, and ties among communities throughout North America will develop. Moreover, computer-mediated communication technology offers enormous potential for enhanced dialogue and information transfer among learners and institutional providers of community adult education, and for optimizing opportunities for interagency cooperation and the development of new modes of learning in the community environment. Communication technology and the changing nature of society to an information-oriented one will certainly require new thinking and action by adult educators with futuristic insight and vision. Its impact will affect the social, political, and educational dimensions of the community.

The increasing complexity of society itself and the multitude of public issues born of it--driven by the rapidity of socioeconomic and technological change--will also impact adult learning needs in the community. There is growing concern that large numbers of adults will become eclipsed, unable to keep up with and comprehend the nature of the complex social issues that affect their lives and communities (Wellborn, 1982). One result is a greater demand in the future for community adult educational efforts, especially community development approaches, to better equip people to understand and influence through collective action the changes that impact their communities and their lives (Phifer, List, & Faulkner, 1980). Institutions of higher education, community schools, human service agencies, religious institutions, business and industry, libraries, and other community, social, and political action agencies

must begin to recognize the benefits of cooperative ventures, and the strength they can generate through such linkages. At the center of this cooperation is the function of education and the potential it holds

for empowering individuals to solve community problems and build strong communication and sociopolitical networks. The future of American communities depends on many factors, education being only one.

CONCLUSION

Through community adult education and effective leadership, the opportunity to create lifelong learning communities for America holds great promise. This article has examined the concepts of community and community adult education, described the various aspects of FOR, IN, and OF community adult education, and briefly explored the potential each has contributed to a bright and productive future for adult learners and the communities in which they reside. Those who wear the badge of community adult educator must help educate the various communities within the American community to the potential that formal, informal, and nonformal education holds for solving personal, professional, social, and political problems. Community adult education can give individuals a voice in the common tradition of community life that is anchored in individualism and opportunity for free choice.

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COMMUNITY ADULT EDUCATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

by

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This article will explore community adult education within the developing nations of Asia, Africa, and Latin America. Specific attention will be given to the purposes and forms of education in poor communities, the relationship between community education

and the concept of development, the respective roles of adult educators and community members in initiating educational efforts, and key issues for educators contemplating a role in communities labeled "developing." The author's perspective is that of a North American who has worked in developing countries as an employee of an international donor organization funding efforts ultimately aimed at improving the well-being of communities.

The term "developing countries" is an arbitrary one (only marginally more acceptable than the term "Third World"), used to describe poor countries in Asia, Latin America, and Africa. Implicit in this term is the eventual goal of development, a supposedly improved state of economic, physical, and educational well-being such as that attained by countries labeled "developed." Certainly, much of community adult education in the developing world is inextricably linked to the many challenges facing poor countries, such as high rates of infant mortality, inadequate public health systems, deforestation, and insufficient food supplies. These problems are complex and education contributes only partially to their ultimate solution.

It is not always easy to identify community education efforts. The boundaries of community are sometimes geographic, such as towns or villages, or at times more figurative, such as the common beliefs of kindred spirits. Learning may take place in a formal instructional environment, or in natural settings--homes, village squares, or farmers' fields. Similarly, it is difficult to determine the ownership of community education, that is, who makes decisions about programs or activities, and the nature of participation. Catalysts and stimulators of community education can be community members themselves or outsiders--from as nearby as a neighboring village, or as far away as North America or Europe. In order for us as North Americans (or as outsiders to particular developing countries) to better understand community education in the developing world, it is useful to borrow a framework which delineates a range of relationships between the educator and the community members.

A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Brookfield (1983) has suggested a typology for viewing adult education in communities: (a) adult education in the community, in which learners exercise control over the content and conduct of learning, while the educator is primarily a resource person; (b) adult education of the community, where the educator enters a community with a preconceived notion of the nature of an educated community; and lastly, (c) adult education for the community, in which the educator reacts to needs expressed by community members. Although this model is perhaps most directly applicable to Western

(North American and European) countries, it is a useful starting point for a look at communities in the non-Western world.

Adult Education in the Community

In Brookfield's (1983) view of adult education in the community, the adult educator provides materials and expertise in an attempt to activate the "educative" community (Hiemstra, 1975) only after a period of initial immersion in that community. This view assumes the educator is from outside the community and thus needs

immersion. For their part, learners retain responsibility for setting learning goals and deciding which advice to accept from a professional educator. In developing countries, two scenarios exist: in one, an outside educator indeed provides resources for community education, after getting to know the community well enough to gain acceptance by its members. This is a common situation for development workers coming into countries with no particular programmatic agenda, but rather just a general mandate to respond to community needs.

In many countries in Africa, Asia, and Latin America, however, traditional systems for the education of adults still persist. In these systems, the "educator" is a member of the community, perhaps with a specific function in that society, but one that is unlike the Western notion of a professional educator. He or she is an integral part of the community, and education is part of the fabric of the culture, rather than a separate institutionalized function.

Examples of adult education in the community include the intentional learning people engage in to cope with everyday change. For example, in Lesotho, a country in southern Africa, villagers come together in community meetings called "pitsos" to hear news from their traditional leaders and to discuss important events and decisions. In more recent times, the pitso has served as a forum for communicating innovations in health and agriculture to villagers. Such an example of community adult education is particularly hard for outsiders to "see," for it is integrated with other communication, religious, and political functions of cultural life.

Community education linked to indigenous institutions frequently stems from the disenfranchisement of poor people. In India, a community of women organized around their common plight: they were all self-employed, as garment workers, vegetable vendors, farm laborers, junksmiths, and many other subsistence-level jobs offering no security, no legal protection, and almost no chance of attaining a level of health, shelter, and income considered minimal to survival. The formation of the trade union SEWA (Self-Employed Women's Association) represented a coming together of the labor, cooperative, and women's movements (SEWA, 1988). Many small communities comprised the larger SEWA community; SEWA members learned how to organize around the joint agendas of struggle and development to maximize political clout. SEWA encouraged its members to learn to

speak for themselves, to negotiate their rightful place in the economy, to live as members of an organization and learn organizational functioning, and lastly, to create a knowledge system based on their own lives and experiences.

The "educators" in SEWA were more likely to be called organizers. They were a combination of paid union officials and active members- the self-employed women who have had experience in the organization, and who work towards SEWA goals while learning from and teaching other members.

The processes involved in participatory research are similar to those described in the SEWA experience. Participatory research is a learning process for members of a "collectivity" organizing around social change (Gaventa, 1988). The three interrelated processes comprising participatory research are collective investigation of problems and issues, analysis of the problems and their underlying structural causes, and both long- and short-term action aimed at resolution.

Common methods used by actors in participatory research are public meetings, discussions, research teams, community seminars, fact finding tours, collective production of audiovisual materials, and popular theater. Strongly influencing the practice of participatory research is Freire's (1970) concept of "conscientization," or learning to identify social, political, and economic contradictions and to take action against oppressive forces. While the labeling of oppression and consequent action comprise the whole of the participatory research method (a term commonly interchanged with "Freirean methods"), in actual practice, this method is often fragmented. For example, community literacy programs will have group members analyze photographs of slum conditions, but then move on to traditional practices from the teaching of reading rather than connect the oppressive conditions identified to further questioning and social action.

Many descriptions of participatory research fail to explain the role of the educator in stimulating and facilitating the participatory research process. The very term "participatory research" indicates the involvement of highly educated professionals who are in the position to articulate--in journals and educational conferences, as well as at the grassroots level--the linkages between theory and practice. The ambiguity of the educator's role is discussed by Gaventa and Horton (1981) in their description of a study in which citizens organized to change patterns of land ownership. While the genesis of the project was consistent with participatory research philosophy in that the research problem originated in the community, the study would not have been published without considerable assistance from university educators and students. This

situation suggests that we cannot assume true ownership by community members of efforts labeled "participatory."

> There is a real danger in participatory research that we create an illusion of community-spawned research when, in fact, social activists or activist academics generate the research problem from their own experience or interest. Then the name of "the people" is raised high as justification for our efforts, which may or may not emanate from the needs of the people (Gaventa & Horton, 1981, p. 37).

In the examples of participatory research and of SEWA, education

reflects communities' attempts to understand and alleviate poverty and marginalization. The role of the outside educator is that of a resource person and catalyst for the processes that community members have set in motion. These roles are not discrete, however, and adult educators may take on (with or without the sanction of members) more active initiator and leadership roles.

Adult Education of the Community

Adult education of the community assumes an idealized vision of the "good" community, and is strongly prescriptive. The educator takes responsibility for transmitting the values, skills, and knowledge that will bring the community to an improved state.

One cannot talk about community education in developing countries without talking about the concept of development. At one level, development is portrayed in benign terms as a long-term process addressing poverty and suffering, and seeking resolution of basic societal problems through some direct intervention (Ewert, 1989). However, the antecedent notion of modernizing indigenous societies, dating back to colonial times, still affects our view of development and its goals. An unholy alliance of Western missionaries, colonial administrators, and multinational corporations converged to subvert indigenous economic and educational institutions and local initiatives in many countries in Africa, Asian, and Latin America (Ewert, 1989; Frank, 1972; Crowder, 1987). Today, at a time when countries are supposedly free from the last vestiges of colonialism, controversy continues around the motives of those who sponsor development and educational efforts in the Third World, and the supposed benefits to adults in communities.

Adult education of the community is perhaps best exemplified by the phenomenon of nonformal education, a term generally referring to the out-of-school education component of national development plans in Third World countries (Moulton, 1977). Key goals of development, or modernization, are generally considered to be an increase in the literacy, numeracy, and informational learnings generally associated with basic primary education (Grandstaff, 1974),

along with an increase in income and productivity at the personal, community, and national levels.

Proponents of nonformal education insist that meaningful individual and institutional development can be initiated by providing individuals, through education, with critical skills and competencies. Critics maintain that nonformal education is but another "reformist ploy" aimed at maintaining an unjust social and economic order and perpetuating dependency of poor nations on industrialized nations (Bock & Papagiannis, 1983; Carnoy, 1982). Perhaps more useful to an understanding of nonformal education as a force in communities are the social attributes described by Bock and Papagiannis in their theoretical analysis of nonformal education and development. These include (a) socialization and social mobility

functions, (b) selection and recruitment functions, and (c) exchange value (what happens to graduates of institutions of nonformal education). The attribute of socialization recognized that nonformal education, like formal education, is consumer-oriented and has a service function--the moral and technical socialization of people. Selection and recruitment refers to the fact that participants in nonformal education may (or may not) be systematically selected into programs based on prior criteria such as social class, ethnicity, rural origin, or prior years of formal schooling. The "exchange value" of nonformal education refers to its ability to either transform society or reinforce existing disparities. Or, rather than promote aspirations, it could serve a "cooling out" function (Bock & Papagiannis, 1983, p. 18) in a developing society, lowering aspirations heightened by early years of schooling and images of an urban elite. Learners' satisfaction or disenchantment with nonformal education is influenced at least partly by the articulation between their expectations of what participation in nonformal education can do for them and the reality.

Providers of nonformal education are numerous, from national ministry-sponsored activities to grass-roots efforts. Some grass-roots nonformal education efforts fit better into Brookfield's category "adult education in the community," because there is more involvement from community members in problem or program definition than educator involvement, and because national development is not much of an issue. Following are two examples, encountered by the author in Africa, of nonformal education efforts typical of adult education of the community. Both of these activities had as a key goal development of the community through education.

Assistance Fund Project

This project was, and still is, administered through a division of the Lesotho Distance Teaching Centre (LDTC), a division of the Ministry of Education. The Assistance Fund Project received most of its funding, through the LDTC, from the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). The purpose of the project was to provide income and employment to rural areas of the country. The Assistance Fund provided both financial help in the form of a

revolving loan fund and technical assistance to rural groups applying for assistance. Proposals for assistance were selected by a screening committee comprised of LDTC staff. Groups proposed an income-generating activity they wanted to begin, as well as a plan for managing this activity. If the proposal was accepted, the LDTC disbursed the first loan installment, and then set up a training program with the group to talk about bookkeeping, planning activities, and group dynamics.

A strong bias toward productivity characterized this project, both on the part of the USAID project personnel and the Basotho trainers who codesigned the project. Productivity was also a concern of rural people who were trying to increase income in a situation where local

economic opportunities were scarce and dependency upon neighboring South Africa high. Members of Assistance Fund groups were socialized, through training from the center, into the management of money and planning processes. Selection was based primarily on whether or not the group could convince the screening committee of the viability of its proposed project.

It was difficult to calculate the exchange value of the training received through the Assistance Fund. Certainly for a younger audience interested in this particular nonformal education activity as a substitute for the diplomas of the formal schooling system, the exchange value would be extremely low. No diplomas or certificates were issued, no jobs were promised as a result of completing the training sequence. Nonetheless, the group members (mostly women with families) receiving Assistance Fund loans and training expected their various projects--poultry raising, school uniform sewing, dairy breeding, to name a few--to result in added income for the group. A few projects were failures, and the others had varying degrees of success.

There were a number of problems limiting the success of the Assistance Fund project that are relevant to other donor-funded nonformal education efforts. First, there was competition among foreign donors to "serve" the rural areas. For example, another donor was offering grants, rather than loans, for income-generating activities in the same communities receiving Assistance Fund aid. Second, it was extremely difficult to pinpoint projects that had a chance of taking off in an environment of poverty and political instability. Third, USAID project money provided salaries for many of the Assistance Fund trainers from Lesotho over a period of seven years. These trainers had done an excellent job of starting and maintaining project activities. By the time the project ended, however, the Distance Teaching Centre had not been able to find money to continue their employment and most had to find other

employment. The local projects have continued, but with far less assistance from project trainers.

ADECOK (the Community Development Association of Kanage).

The ADECOK community development center, located in the African country of Rwanda, started out in 1964 as a health dispensary for a rural district in the center of the country (Ziegahn, 1978). At this time, people from the surrounding hills (the significant community unit, as opposed to villages) came to the Kanage dispensary for free medical attention and free food from the Catholic Relief Service. A European missionary working with the center became concerned that providing routine health care was not sufficient to truly effect the development of the area, and that alternative social and economic structures were necessary. (Interestingly, another center in Rwanda (Ziegahn, 1978) similar in development philosophy and range of activities reversed this order: The Kirarambogo Health Centre started with the goal of overall social

development, and eventually singled out preventative health care as the cornerstone of development.) Together with local priests and government workers, she developed an integrated rural development center comprised of a number of services. Health services were both preventative and curative (whereas before they had only been curative), conducted with the goal of changing attitudes and practices. Visitors to the health center either paid a small amount for services received or worked in the center's model farm. One of the most popular education programs was the maternal-child health center, where mothers came in monthly to weigh their babies. They learned recipes from nutritionists and listened to talks on child health topics. Center nutritionists made regular visits to parents and their children in the hills to see how things were going. Another feature of the Center's activities was the "economic block," which contained a silo, a warehouse, and a store where government agents would come to purchase agricultural products such as coffee and oil. Here, farmers learned by selling their own produce.

The ADECOK center was viewed as a model of cooperation between the private and governmental sectors as well as a good example of outside development agents successfully turning over leadership to community members. After 14 years of working with the original ADECOK center at Kanage, the Belgian missionary who had been active in this center's founding moved to a nearby district to start a similar center. She had great confidence in the management abilities of a local governmental official who had just taken over as director of the original center, as well as the local parish priest and several social workers, who together comprised the new, all-Rwandan leadership team. Center activities were run jointly by ADECOK representatives (including local parish priests and community members) and representatives from local government. This arrangement ensured that changes from either the governmental or private side would not disrupt center operations.

As with the Assistance Fund in Lesotho, the founding philosophy of ADECOK was one of development, meaning a lessening of dependency on outside services, goods, and capital. Free food

distributions from international relief agencies were being phased out, and the only alternative was for local people to somehow pay whatever they could for food and services or grow their own. A parallel issue was the creation of social structures that would support development. Rwanda had only recently gained independence, and was in the process of rethinking the utility of both the administrative patterns inherited from the colonials and traditional Rwandan governing practices. The practice of paying for services, either through fees or work with the various center activities, coincided with the government's stress on "umuganda," the communal labor required of all citizens, as well as with the ADECOK founder's emphasis on lessening dependency on foreign aid.

Once again, the educational aspect of this project was not carried

out by people with the title of "educator." Rather, nutritionists, team leaders, agriculturalists, social workers, priests--all at some point "taught" in natural social settings revolving around work, health, and family life. Community participation displayed various forms: bringing children to the clinic and taking part in related health activities, working in Center gardens, road building, construction of new silos and other buildings, selling produce grown in the home fields at the store run jointly by the government and ADECOK. The procedure for decision-making was described by the founder as one of "laying out the options," and then inviting discussion--a process described as imperfect, but improving.

Community members were "selected" by their willingness to pay with their labor or money for certain services, or by their willingness to participate in economic activities. As with the Assistance Fund, as well as the earlier SEWA example, the concept of exchange value was not relevant, simply because the worth of the education was in the improved health of the family and greater economic well-being. In another example of nonformal education in Rwanda, the exchange value of participation in education was an issue. The CERARS (rural training centers) were established by the Ministry of Education as an alternative to the traditional secondary school system, which emphasized only academic subjects. Graduates, who had learned skills in agriculture, carpentry, and masonry, were expected to return to the hills, build houses, and till the soil. This was an earnest attempt by the government to deal with the many development needs of a poor, agricultural country. Instead, many graduates left rural areas and, with CERAR diplomas, got salaried employment as carpenters and masons for urban building projects funded by international donors. Unlike the Assistance Fund, more attention was paid to building a local infrastructure that could support economic projects.

All of these nonformal education activities, aimed at helping the community, had the involvement of outsiders from donor (generally Western) countries. This is not to suggest that all nonformal

education activities have such involvement, but the very term is Western in origin, and is promulgated by Western financial and technical assistance.

Adult Education for the Community

Brookfield has characterized adult education for the community as a consumer-oriented approach to adult education, in which the adult educator surveys the needs or interests of community members, but makes no decisions as to the merits of particular activities. He cautions that, despite claims to impartiality, educators all have opinions, values, and ethics that influence their inevitable decisions about which courses or activities to include as part of community education programming. This third way of viewing adult education in communities is one of the best known in North America. Needs assessment is a popular tool for making decisions about which

courses to offer, generally after major decisions about the form and financing of community education have been made. Needs assessments are frequently a part of program-based community education, either in schools affiliated with universities (such as Cooperative Extension) or in nonprofit organizations (the YWCA, Red Cross, etc.).

Unfortunately, many lessons about the specific utility of the needs assessment survey have been lost in attempts to transfer this particular type of community education to developing countries. Needs assessment instruments are constructed to survey every possible aspect of life in a community, with no particular thought as to the ultimate audience for survey results or for the feasibility of changes suggested by respondents. Instruments constructed in one country are transferred with little adaptation to other countries having completely different community structures. There are many accounts of international development agents trying to use survey questionnaires in a participatory manner in order to convince community members to buy into a process of change. For example, Ibikunle-Johnson (1989) talks of efforts to educate people in a participatory fashion (at the village level in Uganda and Lesotho) about environmental problems and then mobilize them toward action. Again, the question of relative balance of power between outside community educators and community members is critical. Are people "participating" in a process carefully orchestrated to meet the outcomes desired by professional educators? Or is their participation grounded in their own views of the community, its problems, and possible solutions? The idea of surveying the needs of the community in order to identify activities perceived as important is not in itself negative. Problems arise when one particular research tool, such as the needs assessment, replaces a larger collective process.

ISSUES FOR ADULT EDUCATORS

The processes associated with adult education in, of, and for the community assume a relationship between an adult educator and community members. This relationship is critical to the ultimate success and strength of community education efforts. These efforts falter when the adult educator: (a) exercises power that is not

legitimately his or hers in determining the course of community education, (b) does not know the culture sufficiently to understand members' views on problems, their sources, and alternatives for resolution, and (c) mistrusts the experience and wisdom of local people to grapple with their own problems and to educate themselves in the process. These conditions contribute to what John Gay (1985) termed the "failure of success."

> [The failure of success] occurs when village people have been inducted into an activity, largely not of their own making, which has been designed and executed--with the help of the village people, to be sure--by an

> energetic, innovative, concerned outsider... It is difficult under any circumstances for ordinary people to see ways to change their lives. But when others do the changing, the difficulty is compounded. (p. 39)

Beyond these cautions about the educator-community member relationship, there are some other specific issues worth considering about community adult education in developing countries.

1. To what extent do community adult educators, especially those who are foreign to a culture, listen to the "stories" (Wass, 1976) of a people that make one community (based on geography, ethnicity, or purpose) different from another? Linking traditional community forums and cultural practices to a modern educational agenda is not the prerogative of an outsider, but one that should be explored jointly by educators and community members. Often the cultural institutions with the deepest roots in a community provide the best vehicle for education.
2. Adult educators working with donor organizations (USAID, UNESCO, FAO, etc.) may eventually have to decide who gets their loyalty: sponsors of particular community education projects, or members of the community itself. This is especially true when it becomes clear that the donors have an agenda that differs from that of local communities. In many cases the most useful educational purpose served by foreign project advisors is to explain the nature and needs of a community in a developing country to international project sponsors.
3. Community education programs that depend heavily on outside financial and human resources risk failure when those resources dry up. A common problem in externally funded community education programs is that the people working directly with community ventures are paid through donor funds. The loss of outside funding affects not only the life of a program, but also the careers of committed community educators.
4. Adult educators wanting to see change must be willing to invest more time than the usual development project frame of two to eight years. This is especially true when community education efforts are started by outsiders, not by people from the community. In order for new ideas to become a part of community life, dialogue must occur over a long period of time so all parties involved learn and act together.
5. Adult educators must understand the political nature of community education in developing countries. Most community education focuses on improving the health, economy, and general well-being of communities--all intensely political issues. Adult educators must recognize the potential political ramifications of their actions, and decide, together with community members, what their stance will be.
6. Finally, learning is the lynchpin of community adult education. To remove learning from community education is to reduce the process to one in which community members undertake activities that are, in the end, groundless and futile. It is in the collective

learning of new processes, skills, ways of thinking, and relationships

that people come to a better understanding of themselves, their communities, and their world.

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FACILITATED COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT IN A RURAL AREA

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BACKGROUND

The purpose of this project was to develop and improve the capacity of local citizens and community leaders to solve problems and to engage in a variety of activities designed to foster community development and improvement. The project involved several university service organizations including: the Institute of Government, Small Business Development Center, Continuing Education Center, Cooperative Extension Service, Leadership Development Center, and Institute of Community and Area Development (ICAD). In addition, agencies such as the state department of community affairs, industry and trade, the statewide city and county government associations, and major utility companies cooperated with the university to work with leaders in selected communities. The primary mechanisms for change employed on this project were education and technical assistance.

Funding was provided by the W.K. Kellogg Foundation to design and test different approaches to community education and economic development. ICAD's role was to design four approaches or models to address this purpose. Funding was made available in July 1988

and continued through June 1991, although longer-term work programs would be supported by the university.

Coordinators from the university service organizations and cooperating statewide agencies formed an organizing council to facilitate implementation of the grant in twelve rural communities. Three of those communities and one multicounty region were singled out by ICAD to field test four models of community development. Faculty at ICAD with backgrounds in sociology, social work, adult education, land use and planning, and with small group facilitation skills posed models. They also suggested options, gathered secondary source information (i.e., reports, studies), and conducted interviews in selected counties to design a strategy for each of the different models. Strategies were guided by faculty experience in community development, knowledge of the research literature (e.g.,

Christenson and Robinson, 1980, 1989; Poston, 1976; Twain, 1983; and Loomis, 1960) and, most importantly, reactions from citizens in the communities.

Four models or approaches were used by ICAD. The first model was based on an economic planning approach, and it established a local data base of primary and secondary sources. Information on employment, housing, spending, and taxing patterns was used to assess local business conditions and patterns. A second model addressed local problems such as health, literacy, and child care for improving economic development conditions in the community. The third model, a regional (or multicounty) approach, was based upon the availability and interest of a regional planning agency to test this program. Finally, the fourth model was designed with local leaders who identified existing goals for community economic development and requested assistance in organizing for and achieving these objectives.

A modification of the social action process described by Blakely (1980, p. 215) was used as a guide for working with this community in a facilitated community development program. Blakely suggested that planned social change includes setting goals, acknowledging a change process, attending to barriers, being aware of group norms and roles of individuals and groups, arranging for group action, assessing the group's capability to produce change, organizing for change, and developing leadership to achieve change. This approach was used as a guide in the following ways: (a) goals of the community had been developed in August 1988 when eighteen community leaders participated in a two-day retreat; (b) the change agent was informed of the retreat and goals during the initial interviews of leaders and by reviewing local news media (i.e., the change agent subscribed to the local paper in order to keep informed of local issues and events between visits); (c) ideas were generated and reactions were collected to suggestions from groups such as the chamber's committee chairpersons; (d) the acceptance of these ideas was judged by conferring with local elected officials, business leaders, and citizens; (e) local leaders were asked to disseminate

ideas into the community and to call community meetings to discuss actions toward achieving goals; (f) efforts were made to expand the scope of participation at community meetings and for work projects; and (g) for evaluation purposes the Leadership Alliance was formed, and this group was used to help host the horse show and prepare for the upcoming (September 1991) event.

COMMUNITY CONTEXT

The county selected for the facilitated community development model is one of over 150 in a large southern state that is primarily rural. The state's Department of Industry and Trade literature describes the area as follows: the city is located 122 miles southeast of a major metropolitan area and 22 miles east of the nearest interstate. Population estimates in 1988 were 8,950 people in the county, with 4,372 of these residing in the county's only incorporated city. Per capita income for citizens in the county in 1987 was

$11,240 as compared to $14,320 for the state and $15,484 for the nation. All higher education facilities are located outside the county, one as close as 11 miles. In 1988, the elementary and secondary schools system had 3 public schools with 98 teachers, 1,483 students, and 100 high school graduates. The county is located in a seven county area, which in 1988 was noted for its apparel manufacturing and stone, clay glass, and concrete production. Agriculture production was identified with lumber and wood, food, and kindred products.

Prior to initiating this project, local leaders participated in a goal setting retreat and designated four areas of emphasis for the next five years of development activities. These included: (a) improve quality of life and leadership enhancement; (b) improve education for youth and adults; (c) revitalize the downtown; and (d) develop the economy. The chamber of commerce organized individual committees to address items a, b, and c. Item d, economic development, was the responsibility of an independent industrial development organization which included membership from the local business community. The initiatives identified under each of these four topic areas formed the initial agenda for the efforts of the change agent.

Although local community leaders and interested citizens had a history of meeting together to generate strategies for dealing with local issues, the separate groups in the community worked somewhat independently in implementing those strategies (i.e., the city had their plan, the county theirs, and different citizen groups had their plans). Thus, one need that surfaced early in the project was encouraging different groups to work together cooperatively in a complementary, rather than competing, fashion.

METHODS USED IN EDUCATION AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

The methods used by the change agent assigned to this county

included meeting and interviewing local leaders, chamber of commerce committee chairpersons, city and county officials, executive directors of economic and industrial development groups, and interested citizens. During the interview process, the change agent was asked to attend monthly meetings of the chairpersons of the chamber's committees (approximately 10 individuals) and suggest ways the university could assist in community development. Based on information obtained from these meetings and an analysis of interviews, the change agent was able to suggest ways of using education, information, and technical assistance to assist local citizens and leaders.

DOWNTOWN REVITALIZATION COMMITTEE

A local newspaper article recounting the editors' recent visit to Abbeville, South Carolina, sparked the interest of community leaders concerned with downtown and business development activities. At

the same time, the grant coordinating council at the university was considering offering a tour of locations that had successfully engaged in community development projects. It was determined that a sponsored tour of Abbeville for local leaders and interested citizens would help the community focus on downtown revitalization and riverfront development. Participating citizens (a total of 40 people) paid all their own expenses, and the grant provided funding for transportation. Two locations were visited: Abbeville, South Carolina and Augusta, Georgia.

In preparation for the tour, a community and industrial developer from Abbeville visited the grant community and provided a three-hour slide program describing their conditions, needs, organizational efforts, and successes of their community development. One of the strengths of this effort was a two-day visit by the presenter to the grant community where he toured the town, examined local historic buildings, took pictures of selected locations, and visited with local leaders to discuss possible revitalization projects. These conversations, and knowledge of local structures in the grant community, enhanced the tour of Abbeville, and the local slides (of the grant community) were incorporated into an instructional session presented by the developer during the tour of Abbeville. The instructional program was complemented with a walking tour of downtown Abbeville and attendance at a play by the Abbeville Opera Company in their restored opera house. Following the visit to Abbeville, the group traveled to Augusta, Georgia, where they met with the mayor, toured the riverfront, flood wall, walking and bike trails, shoreline, and building preservation and development.

Based on the interest generated by this tour, grant resources were used to employ an architectural design graduate student to visit the community, meet with the Regional Development Center (RDC) staff, visit the riverfront in Augusta, and prepare a visual of a "riverfront design concept" for the community. This concept visually presented a plan for the development of recreational areas along the river and

emphasized the proximity of downtown businesses, historic buildings, and other points of interest to the recreation area.

Upon return from the tour, participants from the grant community sponsored a "town meeting" (55 people attended, 10 of whom were on the tour, and 45 interested citizens who did not go on the tour) to discuss their reactions and observations with a broader leadership. Results of the tour, the meetings, and other subsequent discussions about development and preservation of historic sites generated several local newspaper articles and created excitement and motivation in the community to "do something" about the riverfront, downtown, and historic buildings. Copies of the riverfront design concept were displayed in several banks, utilities, and offices in the community. Also, community leaders began to discuss the

possibilities of purchasing the necessary lands for the riverfront recreation area, as well as raising money for the restoration of local historic structures.

The most visible result from the tour was the motivation to have the RDC assist the community in designing an "historic" community symbol and erecting welcome signs at strategic entrances to the community. Based upon this support from the RDC, a proposal was also completed and submitted by a local committee to the appropriate state agency designating specific buildings and sections of the town as historic locations.

Another project supported by the RDC was utilization of plans for storefront facades and color patterns for exterior paint. The RDC developed these plans for the community over ten years ago, but they had not been implemented prior to the grant-sponsored tour. Two individual store owners used these RDC designs to paint and remodel their businesses, which are located downtown. One owner painted and remodeled without benefit of these designs.

QUALITY OF LIFE COMMITTEE

The quality of life committee asked for assistance in identifying existing and new or expanded recreational facilities in the community. The change agent secured assistance from recreational professionals within the university, and sponsored a meeting with about 30 local citizens and recreational professionals to discuss the project. The change agent then designed a recreational survey instrument and sampling procedures for obtaining citizen's opinions about the types of recreation facilities and services needed. The survey instrument was prepared, delivered, and explained at a local citizens' meeting (25 people attended, including 2 members of the city council). During this meeting several other issues were expressed, especially the inaccessibility and lack of involvement of the local citizens serving on the recreational board. To date, the recreational survey has not been implemented as planned. A direct result of this effort, however, was the appointment of new members to the local citizens' recreational board, expansion of the summer

recreational activities schedule, and the hiring of a local recreation director. Although the survey was not implemented, the work of the change agent was considered to be the critical motivating force behind these positive changes in the recreation opportunities in the community.

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEE

Economic development activities progressed in the community with the support of the private economic development agency and the local chamber of commerce. The county has two industrial park sites. West Park had been developed and existing buildings expanded to accommodate industrial development. East Park is only land, with no development. However, a 1990 plant closing and

shift of manufacturing to a neighboring community has had a negative impact on the local economic situation. The recent addition of an antique mall in the downtown area, the opening of a 24-hour fast food restaurant and two other restaurants, plus completion of an "up-scale" bed and breakfast inn have helped to shore up some of the otherwise negative economic developments.

Another economic development opportunity exists in the form of a city-owned horse racing facility. Many of the economic development efforts of the community center on promoting the race track and recruiting potential users of the facility. The change agent was asked to assist in expanding citizen involvement in the community's efforts to host a statewide horse show at the track. In order to accomplish this expansion, a "Leadership Alliance" was formed. The alliance included approximately 30 individuals from the community, including representation from civic clubs, minority church groups, and women's clubs, who agreed to coordinate and organize volunteer support (e.g., running concession stands, clean-up, etc.) for the show. Two local meetings were held to generate support for the horse show and communicate the plans and needs for the show. The change agent facilitated these meetings and assisted community leaders in discussing the need for scheduling and facility arrangements. The change agent also designed, administered, and analyzed a survey of horse show participants in order to identify areas of strength, and ideas for future promotion efforts. Survey results also identified several important considerations for improving the facility and local arrangements to meet participant expectations and needs. Finally, the change agent designed, administered, and analyzed a brief survey of community merchants (n=12) in order to determine how they modified their business operations for the horse show and to assess their level of preparedness for the additional visitors to the area. Results of this survey suggested ways that the community might better prepare its services (e.g., lodging, restaurants, etc.) and merchants for future events. As a result of these activities, the economic development committee had a nearby two-year college engage one of its business instructors and class in a study of the need for hotel/motel accommodations in the community.

EDUCATION COMMITTEE

Prior to the grant period, members of the education committee began to implement their work agenda. As planned, they prepared and distributed a brochure highlighting the positive aspects of the city and county public schools and the education system. Also, a concerted effort was made to keep the public informed of a broad range of educational events, opportunities, and accomplishments in the community via the local news media. Developing a recognition and awards program for teachers and students was one of the committee's efforts. Publicizing basic literacy programs for adults was another. The change agent was not asked to become involved in the work of this committee. It must be noted that the education

committee had identified their goals, objectives, and actions, and did not perceive that the change agent would be helpful to their efforts. Chairs of the education committee were active participants in the monthly meetings.

FOLLOW-UP RETREAT

Approximately 18 months after the initial community leader's planning retreat, the change agent suggested that it might be appropriate to have a meeting to look at accomplishments since the retreat and begin exploring an agenda for community development efforts during the next two or three years. A follow-up retreat was held to recognize what had been accomplished and to identify future needs. A total of 28 citizens representing a cross section of the community attended the retreat--including the chairman of the county commission, a city commissioner, local business owners, and the assistant superintendent of schools. One of the significant items discussed at this retreat was the need for broader participation of citizens in local community development activities... "More people representing a diverse citizenry is a must if we are to accomplish what is needed in the future." Of particular interest was the broadening of the resource base by including church groups, the Association of Retired Persons, high school groups, and other organizations that are often overlooked in the community.

Retreat participants suggested forming a collective "Leadership Alliance" representing interested citizens and civic groups to help identify and complete projects in the community. The change agent worked with resource people in the university to develop suggestions for organizing the alliance. Two community meetings (first meeting n=35; second meeting n=25) were held to discuss and promote the alliance concept. Although the concept was met with some skepticism by the established political and business leadership, many individuals in the community saw the Leadership Alliance as a mechanism for implementation of broad-based community and economic development activities. In fact, the coordination of efforts necessary to host the horse show, described previously, were the first successful efforts of the alliance. Results of the horse show participant survey, which were generally positive and were highly

complimentary of the services and efforts made by the community in their behalf, provided a successful beginning for the alliance. Based on that experience, community groups have developed a clearer understanding of the ways in which they might work together and have explored the possibility of jointly hosting other events. Unfortunately, since that time there have not been any recognized opportunities for members of the alliance to work together on additional community projects. A third retreat was conducted in February 1991 with a group of 34 leaders and volunteers emphasizing education and literacy, tourism, downtown and

riverfront development, quality of life and beautification, economic development, and housing improvements.

DISCUSSION

A review of the grant-sponsored activities within this community requires examination of the change agent's assumptions (Loomis, 1960). In this situation, the change agent:

1. Assumed that local leaders had a plan (i.e., 1988 Retreat Report) and that they wanted to implement the suggestions in the plan.
2. Assumed that most if not all of the key leaders in the community endorsed and supported the plan.
3. Knew that there was friction building between competing economic development groups in the community.
4. Was aware, after interviewing many individuals and leaders, that there was no agreement between key individuals and groups on how to carry out the activities suggested in their retreat report.

Based on these assumptions and information, the strategy adopted by the change agent included: (a) heightened awareness of the general interests of leaders in the overall development of the community; (b) staying out of and trying not to be drawn into the battles between the competing economic development groups; (c) meeting with designated committee chairpersons to listen for opportunities to provide assistance and at the same time promote the expertise and technical assistance available within the university; and (d) contacting the grant's cooperating agencies for assistance in delivering services to the community.

Although the general objectives for this project were specified in the grant proposal, there was considerable flexibility for the change agent to respond to local needs and the characteristics of the community. In fact, the grant specifically called for the change agent to test different strategies from those typically employed by technical assistance and development groups. This allowed the change agent to use a modified social action process following Blakely (1980, p. 215).

In addition to the involvement of the university and state agency cooperators, it is important to acknowledge the support of other groups in the area; for example, the RDC, private industrial

development groups, city and county officials, and local citizens.

Regional Development Center Role

Several agencies played important roles in community development during the grant period. Specifically, the RDC had a history of working with local elected officials in the community to provide specific plans, projects, and designs. These designs included storefront facades, paint color coordination schemes, historic signage design, downtown park designs, and tree planting designs for downtown. The RDC had developed most of these plans and designs

prior to 1988; they were developed to specification and made available for immediate use. However, recent grant activities provided renewed interest in implementing these plans.

Role of Economic Development/Industrial Development Groups

The chamber of commerce and the private incorporated industrial development agency in this rural community competed for resources from some of the same businesses and individuals. During the grant period, it was difficult for either of the two organizations to solicit enough support, both financial and manpower, to do an outstanding job in general community development and in industrial development. In fact, competition between these agencies often slowed or stalled communications on activities undertaken for part of this project and limited the change agent's abilities to effectively follow through on some proposals for involvement in community development activities. One perception is that competition between these agencies diluted the available support so that neither group could be as effective as they might otherwise have been.

Role of City and County Officials

Elected officials in the city and county governments appear, on the surface, to work reasonably well together on many issues. The city owns and manages the racetrack training facility and thus has a potential revenue generating resource. The chamber of commerce and several committees have been instrumental in promoting the improvement, development, and marketing of this facility to groups within and outside the state. Revenues generated by the facility, for the most part, have been reinvested in the track to make it more marketable.

Role of Citizens-At-Large in the Community

Citizens from the community are directly affected by the location of new or expansion of existing businesses or industries. The encouragement and recruitment of citizens to become members of, and participate in, the Leadership Alliance has many positive spinoffs. For example, there will be more volunteers and workers to help with future horse shows, recreation studies, and riverfront development. There needs to be an influx of new ideas and

suggestions on how to improve city and county services, and resources to maintain and improve the quality of life in the area. One of the first factors studied by business leaders when considering relocation and/or development in a community is the quality of life for their employees and managers. What are the available city and county services? Where are the schools? What is the academic/vocational standard of the schools? These and many other community development issues are of vital importance to existing residents and newcomers to the area.

CONCLUSIONS

The original purpose of the facilitated community development model was to work with existing leadership and local organizations to facilitate achieving their goals. One of the roles of the change agent was to observe, listen, and be available to suggest resources of the university and/or other cooperating agencies.

Facilitation was promoted by using the Blakely (1980) guide for social action, such as evaluating the social situation, initiating ideas via the chairperson's group, etc. Progress toward goals also appeared to be supported by holding periodic retreats and monthly committee

chairperson's meetings. Another vital part of the implementation strategy was the prior work done by the RDC and the continual involvement of the RDC in a variety of local projects such as the study about offstreet parking, planning for the planting of trees in the downtown area, designing welcome signs for major roadways into the county, and planning the design of a small downtown park.

It was evident throughout the three-year project that local citizens and leaders had taken a more active role in volunteering for community development projects. More people volunteered to help with the 1990 Labor Day Horse Show than had worked on previous projects. This effort paid off in both satisfaction of horse show participants as well as securing a contract for 1991. Downtown storefronts, parking, tree planting, and historic signage are other indicators of how leaders, merchants, and volunteers worked together to improve the community. The local historic preservation commission is currently promoting the historic designation of selected building sites and several blocks of houses in the downtown area.

One area that needs additional emphasis, according to the change agent, is recognition of local citizens and leaders for their efforts in volunteering their time and energy to discuss, plan, and do much of the hard work necessary to complete local projects. A broader base of support and involvement of local citizens, including minorities, should be encouraged with a systematic process for recognizing the efforts via news articles, awards, and "certificates of effort" for volunteers and their families.

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B O O K R E V I E W

Milbraith, L.W. (1989) ENVISIONING A SUSTAINABLE SOCIETY: LEARNING OUR WAY OUT. Albany, N.Y.: State University of New York Press. 403 pages.

Reviewed by Daniel V. Eastmond
Syracuse University

In the past few years there has been growing global concern about the degradation of our environment. The recent Persian Gulf conflict has surfaced the need to seek out alternative, less pollutive energy sources, while less developed nations view the plea to

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conserve natural resources as a strategy of environmental colonialism. Last December, adult educators from several nations

carried on a lively computer discussion over the Adult Education Network (AEDNET) about how our discipline should be involved in the environmental crisis.

The crucial questions that emerged were: (a) why should adult education assume a role in solving the environmental dilemma, and (b) what should be the role of adult education? Lester Milbraith, a political scientist, addresses these questions in his recent book, ENVISIONING A SUSTAINABLE SOCIETY: LEARNING OUR WAY OUT.

The role education plays in "learning our way out" may not be through formal institutions of adult education, although they could certainly capitalize on this opportunity. Milbraith promotes an adult social learning response, a phenomenon that occurs when the societal majority gains sufficient awareness and decisiveness on an issue to affect immediate change. Effective social learning becomes an on-going process when a society becomes forward looking--planning for on-going policy directed towards environmentally sound lifestyles for all global citizens. Adults are the only group who can deliver immediate, informed solutions and implement them. And, the global environmental crisis is so acute that there is not time to wait for a response from upcoming generations.

Milbraith sees education playing the central role because other institutions have failed to generate an adequate response to the environmental crisis. The political arena is dominated by the ethos of development, a process inimical to environmental sustenance. The economic sector is governed by free marketplaces that cannot anticipate future calamity and prepare for it. Unharnessed technology increasingly decimates the ecosystem and is wielded by those in power who generally seek their own ends and not the general social good. Education cannot unravel the environmental tangle alone, though. It must work effectively with political, economic, and scientific sectors, too.

The appeal of Milbraith's approach is its detailed emphasis on solutions. Society must learn its way to a New Environmental Paradigm (NEP), the shared rationale for sustaining high quality

human life while preserving all species. Such a society: (a) values nature, (b) has compassion towards other species and peoples (including future generations), (c) plans and executes change to avoid risk, (d) places limits on growth, (e) creates a new political structure emphasizing long-term planning and citizen participation, and (f) reforms itself towards simple lifestyles, satisfying work, cooperation, increased valuing of public goods, and opening up participation by all peoples to social, political, and economic opportunities.

Each aspect of the sustainable society is elaborated fully within the book, such as what ecology in a future society will be like; how the world can create a renewable food supply for its burgeoning population; what constitutes fulfilling work in an economic order that disavows development and growth; and how we can learn to enjoy

life without compulsive consumption of material goods. He also elaborates upon the transformation of political systems, the role of science and technology, and the movement towards equity among nations.

Another appeal of the book is its elaboration of the role of learning to enhance the environmental condition. Social learning for Milbraith is not just the solution, but also a fundamental characteristic of a society formulated upon the NEP. He envisions a society where all citizens engage in information processing. Social learning: (a) is supported by society, (b) allows for utilizing the plethora of information, (c) promotes probabilistic and integrative thinking, (d) emphasizes values, as well as facts, (e) is critical of science and technology as the sole authoritative means to arrive at truth, and (f) promotes systematic thinking and anticipates future change.

He argues that we need to work out our values as a society through discussion, seeing how each value contributes or detracts from the core value of a viable ecosystem. Using nature as the basis for learning, not social institutions, Milbraith explains three maxims that environmentalists derive from the first law of thermodynamics: (a) that everything must go somewhere; (b) we can never do merely one thing; and (c) we must continually ask, "and then what?" Education must emphasize the integral place humans occupy in nature and nurture a nonexploitive role in that relationship.

How might social learning actually extricate us from the environmental challenges we face? Milbraith creates a scenario of society not being transformed until the mood is right - until the idea's "time has come," perhaps as a result of successive and deepening ecological crises within the next twenty years. He thinks society will take a defiant, reactionary approach to the environmental crisis first; but, finally, a societal "openness" will occur, and enough receptive people will become a critical mass to usher in the NEP. The mass paradigm shift will then be swift, probably taking a three-year period. Changes in lifestyles and institutions will take approximately 100 years, he presumes.

Milbraith suggests how we should act to promote environmental social learning. As individuals we can cultivate environmental awareness and make it central to our

thought processes, translate that awareness into personal action - living a simple, environmentally sound life, and share these beliefs and values with others as much as possible. (These obligations are similar to the responsibilities religious adherents take upon themselves). While the NEP remains the minority perspective, educators can move toward social learning by: (a) disseminating information about the crisis and solutions; (b) using economic, political, moral, or physical pressures to alter social behavior; (c) targeting the conversion of the elite to this paradigm; (d) inventing

social remedies to change behavior; (e) organizing others into a social movement; and (f) working to change other's beliefs and values about the environment.

Milbraith's prophetic analysis can't be entirely accurate, but the book is filled with rich ideas. His rosey prediction that society will solve the environmental crisis through social learning would probably not be shared by all environmentalists. But, the pessimistic views many hold offer few solutions. With Milbraith, the trend among environmentalists is to see the very institutions formerly targeted as the source of the environmental problem as essential players in finding and implementing efficacious solutions.

The book's vision of the sustainable society is alluring to pursue. The optimism he expresses that human societies can change and improve is a welcome alternative to the skepticism that pervades much of the environmental literature. Societies may not, but at least it helps me feel that my individual effort is meaningful and may someday contribute to that final, positive result.

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E D I T O R I A L P O L I C Y

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NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION
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EDITORS' PREFACE

In this issue of NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION under new editorship, we are glad to announce some new innovations. Soon subscribers will be able to automatically retrieve all issues of the journal. Also, in the new year we will begin discussions of single refereed articles over AEDNET. This will enable readers to dialogue with one another, editorial staff, and author(s) of each article. In this way, more subscribers will

be able to share their viewpoints through a forum which exchanges reading and discussion of critical and other contemporary issues raised by the journal.

This issue of NEW HORIZONS contains several articles that address very different aspects of adult education. TECHNOLOGY IN THE CLASSROOM OF THE FUTURE, by Wayne Hartschuch, describes various technological advances that are shaping our classrooms. The article depicts important future innovations of which educators will want to take note. It provides a comprehensive focus on computer networks, electronic chalkboards, "Intelligent" tutoring systems, interactive videodisc and Skynet. It shows how future classroom design is affected by increasing knowledge of these innovations, impling that adult educators should begin developing their curricula to appropriately take advantage of new technologies.

Paul Edelson's article MODEL BUILDING AND STRATEGIC PLANNING IN CONTINUING HIGHER EDUCATION, explores numerous alternative methods of Continuing Education to assist educators in program planning and administration. He describes

12 models of Continuing Higher Education which can shape the future of continuing education in view of current challenges. Edelson suggests that each subunit within continuing education be driven by its own value system; by looking at alternative models, adult educators can be freed from their unexamined assumptions.

In his review of Ira Shor's book, CULTURE WARS, Michael Ehringhaus analyzes its main theme: that school reforms of the past two decades have been shaped by conservative forces which ignore the ideals of the sixties. Ehringhaus examines Ira's Shor's view that the school exists within the race, class, gender and cultural dynamics of the broader society, to conclude that the book is both "interesting and challenging" (p. 27).

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TECHNOLOGY IN THE CLASSROOM OF THE FUTURE

by

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ABSTRACT

Educators should design future classrooms to optimize learning opportunities with a technology-based approach. The expansion of instructional

technologies and their improvement opens the door to the futuristic classroom. Computer networks can bring together students engaged in common learning activities. The networkable chalkboard can improve legibility and flexibility in the arrangement and size of text and diagrams, with the capability of retrieving previously generated information. Intelligent tutoring systems give direction to the student's learning, based on student strengths and weaknesses rather than on pre-designed directives. Interactive videodisc combines computer technology with the power of video. The future looks bright as educators explore the potential of satellite systems, school-oriented news programs, and laser holography.

INTRODUCTION

The classroom of the future will be designed to optimize learning opportunities with a technology-based approach. The excitement surrounding the futuristic classroom lies in expanding the instructional uses of computer networks, networkable chalkboards, intelligent tutoring systems, interactive videodisc, satellite systems, school-oriented newsrooms, and laser holography.

COMPUTER NETWORK

A personal computer local area network (PC LAN) is a combination of hardware and software that links personal computers and peripherals to form a high-speed communications network in a limited geographic area. The most common use of a PC LAN is to share files and costly peripherals,

such as printers and hard disks.

Perhaps the most important future use of networks in the classroom will be to have several people engaged in a common learning activity, such

as peer or cooperative learning. Students can help each other in joint learning activities through the network, and the learning that takes place can be greater than in current learning activities and much more focused (Bork, 1987). An example of cooperative learning concerns writing. Students can be in contact with other students through a network. The students, working through a network, can prepare an electronic newspaper for other students.

Dr. Alfred Bork of the University of California, Irvine conducted a segment of a course where his students wrote entirely through a network, giving each other criticisms and suggestions. In the final product, Dr. Bork felt that the quality of writing in the group effort was much higher than the quality of writing he had previously seen by the same students in other individual writing activities. He concluded that when the students were using the computer network, they took more care and paid more attention to their writing for their professors (Bork, 1987).

Classroom networks make a variety of activities possible. One student can be writing a composition while another student is reading it. Other students can be serving as critics, asking questions about the composition or offering suggestions for improvements through the network. Another possibility can be a form of problem-solving. A problem can be presented through the network which, needing a variety of steps, can be solved by the group. Each member of the group contributes ideas and evaluates the ideas of the other members (Bork, 1987).

Common learning activities do not need to be limited to a local network. With the advent of low cost telecommunications networks, collaborative efforts between classes in different areas of the country or even the world are possible.

THE NETWORKABLE CHALKBOARD

The most common method of presenting material in today's classroom is the chalkboard. The chalkboard allows flexible placement of text and

diagrams, but problems do occur, largely due to limited space. Items must be erased when space is needed for something else. The rearranging of items is inconvenient because those items must be manually rewritten or redrawn and then erased. Handwriting can be illegible, and information storage is unreliable. If chalkboard information is to be used for more than one day, it might be erased during another class which involves time-consuming replacement of the information onto the chalkboard.

On the other hand, functions that are awkward or impossible on a chalkboard can easily be implemented with computers. Window systems and drawing aids provide the flexibility for rearranging of text and diagrams. Text can be displayed in different sizes and styles that are crisp and clear. File systems make it possible to retrieve information generated previously. With a PC LAN, students at work stations can share their views, point to items under discussion, and work on different aspects under discussion simultaneously (Stefik, et. al., 1987). This interesting implementation will be worth considering in the classroom of the future.

Although computers are in widespread use, there is a tendency to leave them behind during group problem-solving. The Xerox Palo Alto Research Center is developing a system called Colab. It is an experimental meeting room created to study support of collaborating problem-solving in face-to-face meetings with the long-term goal of understanding how to build computer tools which make meetings and classes more effective. In its early stages, Colab currently connects small groups of two to six persons using personal computers over a local area network (Stefik, et. al., 1987).

Colab is broken down into three tools: Boardnoter, which closely imitates the function of a chalkboard; Cognoter, a tool for organizing ideas to plan a presentation; and Argnoter, a tool for considering and evaluating alternate proposals (Stefik, et. al., 1987). Boardnoter, of most interest for classroom utilization, is ideally suited for courses that rely heavily on freestyle

sketching, such as Geometry.

A key feature in Boardnoter is a large area for freestyle sketching. Below the sketching/writing area is a "chalk tray" which

contains a piece of chalk, an eraser, a miniature typewriter, and a pointer, the main four utilities for Boardnoter operation. To draw, one uses the "chalk." To erase, one uses the "eraser." To type, one uses the "typewriter." To point, one uses the "pointer." Usually, an instructor will use more than one board full of information in a class. At the bottom of the screen, there is a "stampsheet" of shrunken stampsized boards which makes it possible to obtain a fresh board or to switch back to a board created earlier (Stefik, et. a 1987).

Enhancements to Boardnoter of particular interest to teachers include copying, moving, resizing, grouping, and smoothing (to neaten the sketch) (Stefik, et. al., 1987). The availability of such a tool for a PC LAN in the classroom of the future is exciting; creative imaginations will only help realize its full capability.

INTELLIGENT TUTORING SYSTEMS

Intelligent tutoring systems or intelligent computer-assisted instruction (ICAI) can have a dramatic effect on education. In intelligent tutoring systems or ICAI, an expert system is used as the basis for instructional analysis. The expert system gives the ICAI program the intelligence to compare the learning task to the student response, attending to the things the pupil does wrong, forgets to do, does unnecessarily, and does in the wrong order. This automated tutor can then give direction to the student's learning based on the student's strengths and weaknesses. This means the intelligent system can branch on the basis of student interaction rather than to a pre-designed

set of directives, thereby leading to changes in the instructional sequence or content based on the student responses (Winn, 1987). Working with these automated tutors or ICAI programs instead of using traditional teaching methods, may allow students to learn more in a shorter period of time.

Remarkably, ICAI has adapted two time-tested teaching strategies to the computer situation: the Socratic approach and the coaching approach (Thorkildsen, Lubke, Margaret, Myette, & Perry, 1986). The Socratic approach expects the student to infer the correct response. The ICAI program guides the student through the logic of the instructional content with a series of questions.

If the student errors, the program changes the order of questioning to help the student correct any misunderstandings (Thorkildsen, et al., 1986). ICAI programs which utilize the Socratic approach are SCHOLAR (Carbonell, 1970) and WHY (Stevens, Collins Goldin, 1978). The SCHOLAR program is a South American geography tutor. The WHY program is a tutorial relating rainfall and other physical elements such as moisture, wind, and warm air streams.

The coaching approach allows the student to explore a variety of problem-solving methods. As the computer presents problems to the student, an intelligent tutoring component analyzes student responses and suggests alternate methods and why the alternate method was chosen (Thorkildsen, et al., 1986). A program which uses the coaching approach is WEST (Burton Brown, 1976). WEST coaches students to apply efficient ways to solve problems in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. The computer coach in WEST offers criticisms and suggests to the student ways to improve their arithmetic problem-solving.

The construction of deductive proofs in a traditional Geometry class is a major stumbling

block for many high school students. The Geometry Proof Tutor (GPTutor), a computer-based artificially intelligent tutoring system designed to give one-on-one coaching to the student during proof construction. GPTutor allows students to work at their own pace without the strain of peer pressure, favorably impacting student ability and attitude. (Wertheimer, 1990) A definite advantage for an efficient classroom of the future!

Although these programs are strictly computer oriented, the exciting part of ICAI lies in multimedia. Advances in videodisc and CD-ROM technology make the multimedia approach to ICAI available. The capability of incorporating audio and video into a computer guided instructional setting is staggering in its potential.

INTERACTIVE VIDEODISC

The classroom of the future will allow students to access videodisc technology. A teacher will be able to prepare group presentations supplemented with videodisc or use interactive programs for individual or small group work. Interactive videodiscs may allow students

to work independently for enrichment and remediation. An interactive videodisc program claims to teach a student faster and with more retention than by traditional teaching methods.

A "videodisc-enabled" teacher will be capable of producing a series of stills or motion video sequences to supplement a lecture, segments which can be stored on computer disk for future use. After saving the original information, additions and changes can be made in the future. Producing these sequences will not necessarily be limited to the teacher. They can create a valuable learning experience by allowing students to produce the programs.

The National Geographic Society, in collaboration with Lucasfilm, Ltd., has produced a videodisc program called GTV: A Geographic Perspective on American History. GTV is a visual journey through American history with an emphasis on geography. The videodiscs contain two hours of video which includes 40 short shows, over 1600 pictures (slides), and 200 maps. The videodiscs are designed so that they can be used as a stand-alone linear program or in conjunction with a computer-driven program. Utilizing a computer and accompanying software to control the videodisc, the visuals can be accessed in any order. Consequently, the teacher, or the student can create custom presentations utilizing any of the shows, pictures, or maps which are part of the videodiscs.

Imagine how creative a student can be in the "videodisc-enabled" classroom of the future. With videodisc programs, such as, GTV, instead of writing a 10 page term paper, the student can create a 15- 20 minute interactive videodisc presentation utilizing still frame video, maps created with computer graphics, and full motion video.

SKYNET 2000

The classroom of the future will have access to technology capable of retrieving information from various sources, but perhaps the most exciting source is from the satellite. According to Jeffery Kluger, human beings have a peculiar problem: more information than they can handle. In the past few decades, knowledge has multiplied at enormous rates. This human quest for more knowledge has yielded a mountain of information.

The problem is that humans have no efficient way of spreading this wealth of information around the world. How can information be shared with information-hungry people in classrooms around the world? The answer may be Skynet 2000, a satellite

system that is an orbiting data bank (Kluger, 1984).

Engineer Charles Gould has proposed a sophisticated communications network that could give anyone on earth direct access to data banks without going through the conventional channels of telephone or radio. Gould suggests that we "hurl the entire hornet's nest into space." He envisions a ten satellite system in geosynchronous orbits linked together by laser, avoiding the plagues of radio signal interface (Kluger, 1984).

A similar concept being proposed uses 'cellular phone systems'; Skynet 2000 goes a step further by putting the mass memory devices in space. Users with pocket phones would communicate with any other phone in the world, or access the satellite data banks with portable computer terminals. Given this technology, people could access the data base from anywhere in the world, such as, farmers in corn fields, researchers at sea, climbers on a mountaintop, or airplane pilots in flight (Kluger, 1984).

CNN NEWSROOM: EDUCATIONAL INNOVATION

CNN Newsroom, an educational service of the Turner Broadcasting System, began operation on August 14, 1989. CNN, the nation's largest newsgathering organization, prepares the daily 15 minute program on the top news items of the day with at least one major story reported in depth. CNN then delivers CNN Newsroom via satellite to local cable television outlets for broadcast in an early morning time slot (3:45 AM, EST).

Schools, similarly, can enroll in the CNN Newsroom service, allowing them to videotape the program during the early morning with unlimited off-cable taping and duplicating rights. Therefore, teachers can decide when, where, and how the programs are used in the classroom. For example, programs can be used daily or bits and pieces of the daily programs can be edited into a weekly classroom presentation. Daily teacher guides are prepared by professional educators as each program is completed, making the daily guide absolutely current and almost as immediate as the

news. The teacher guides are available for printing and duplicating by cable via Telecommunications Inc.'s X-PRESS X-Change service and through GTE electronic mail service for downloading to a personal computer.

The innovation of using satellites, cable television, and electronic mail, in combination with inventive teachers across the nation, are realizing the promise of the global village. The creative efforts of a major newsgathering organization and teachers are linking television news with the curriculum.

Future uses of this technology may grow with the success of CNN Newsroom. Early indications show that CNN Newsroom is well accepted and successful. In the first 8 months of operation, over 7000 schools had enrolled in the service with projections for the second year of operation being over 10,000 schools. If success breeds success, look for other services to "spring up" in the future.

LASER HOLOGRAPHY

Not too far in the future lies the ability to project a three dimensional image in the air anywhere in the world through laser holographic technology. Imagine the educational benefits bringing a moving three-dimensional image of the President, a celebrity, or an expert from any field into the classroom to hold an interactive conversation with the students.

Laser holography has potential outside the classroom as well. Millions of dollars are spent preparing and securing summit conferences between heads of state. With laser holography, a scenario such as this could occur. In five cities, Washington D.C., London, Paris, Moscow, and Bonn, identical conference rooms are constructed. Each room has an identical table, identical chairs, and identical decor. The only difference is that each room has only one real participant, all others are holographic images. To each person involved in the conference, though, it appears that the other people are actually there. Holographic conferences would allow everyone to participate as if all

parties were actually present, but without the security problems and recurring expenses that presently exist when moving a large entourage around the world.

CONCLUSION

The technological classroom of the future has exciting possibilities with computer networks, interactive videodisc, and intelligent tutoring systems offering the most immediate opportunity for placement in the classroom. The cost of equipment is a major obstacle, but with the cost of computers and vieodiscs dropping, this technology is starting to infiltrate the classroom. While the cost of laser holography is still out of reach, satellite technology and fiber optics are becoming affordable enough to make an impact in the classroom. In the upcoming century, continued technological advances will provide classroom possibilities that surpass our present imaginations.

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MODEL BUILDING AND STRATEGIC PLANNING IN CONTINUING HIGHER EDUCATION

by

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ABSTRACT

The value of creating descriptive models for organizing continuing higher education is explored in this paper as a way of critically assessing previously unexamined assumptions. Limitations of the pervasive marketing model are explored and twelve alternatives are described including the omnibus, academic department, and facilitator.

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

The administrative context of continuing education in colleges and universities has emphasized a market driven approach to enrollment issues. In both credit and non-credit programs, viability is often an outcome of registration. Consequently, the continuing education manager is hard pressed to retain courses that fail to justify themselves financially. A strategy develops wherein highly successful programs or "cash cows," as they are called, are milked to keep less successful programs alive. Experienced managers learn how to anticipate the life cycle of programs. They know from experience that "cash cows" will eventually go dry and new programs must be developed to take their place.

This marketing model, appropriated from the business world, is so pervasive in continuing education that it is often

uncritically accepted a priori and frames definitions of a program's success or failure and that of individual careers. Operationally, the model determines which audiences will be served and the types of

educational activities that can be offered. Strategic planning in this sales-oriented environment becomes very similar to product development. Positioning, market research, course development, advertising and promotion become significant administrative activities. Course evaluations are viewed as ways of measuring consumer satisfaction and identifying new course ideas.

Without doubt this corporate-inspired model, stressing the development of marketable programs, has been able to successfully address the need for identifying high demand programs, assuring acceptable levels of quality, and, most importantly, satisfying the financial requirements imposed upon continuing education by the institution. Its uncritical acceptance, however, has dampened enthusiasm for experimentation with other approaches to program development and continuing education administration that might equally suffice under current conditions. Moreover, while it may not be feasible, nor even desirable, to jettison the marketing model, creative professionals may find ways to modify it, thereby mitigating its most noxious aspects.

Being able to visualize different models for continuing education becomes a key element in thinking of alternative organizational approaches. In fact, it is the most meaningful type of strategic planning since it is fundamental, and a prelude, to the development of programs and their implementation. Standing back from the marketing model and viewing it as one of many possible realities, we can become architects of our personal visions for continuing education that come closer to reconciling professional needs with institutional requirements.

For example, Edelson (1990b) proposed a model of continuing education as a Third World entity within the political milieu of the university. The role of the dean or director could be understood in both policy

and representational dimensions and resembled that of the diplomat. A major responsibility for the continuing education leader in this construct is to secure political autonomy for continuing education which could chart its own destiny. In order to do this, the unit must skillfully articulate a philosophy and, then, conduct its affairs in ways that enable it to optimally address adult learning needs within the university. Pragmatically, this meant the development of specialized curricula for part-time adults instead of the continuing education unit serving as a shunting mechanism that moved students to other parts of the university where they were served in an inadequate, hit or miss fashion by traditional programs that were insufficiently adapted to their needs.

Understanding campus environments or cultures becomes a key undertaking for those who seek to redefine the practice of continuing education at their institutions since it is within these social matrices that change, based upon new organizational models, does or does not take place. Edelson (1990a) developed a framework for analyzing continuing higher education within the context of campus cultures so that managers would have insight into important situational variables that could account for differences between collegiate continuing education programs. These factors, including the tradition of continuing education at the campus, the extent to which the college budget is tuition driven, and the geographic location of the school, present both opportunities and limitations for model building in continuing education.

THE TWELVE MODELS

In this paper, twelve different ways of viewing continuing higher education are described in varying detail. Each draws attention to alternative relationships between the continuing education program, its institutional setting, and the role of leadership, a methodology adapted from Gareth

Morgan's IMAGES OF ORGANIZATION (1986).

The models suggest a range of possibilities. Though intended to be value neutral, they may engender strong feelings

based upon the reader's own convictions about what is desirable continuing education practice. The models, then, are presented as a challenge to our customary ways of thinking about what we do, not necessarily as a prescription for change.

Omnibus Model

This term is used by Clark (1956) to describe the multipurpose mission of adult education in the California public schools, but it also is an effective way of interpreting what transpires within the collegiate setting. The omnibus carries, in some instances, credit, non-credit, public service, contract training and so forth.

Yet, an omnibus also suggests a certain fixed capacity or number of seats that can be filled. The model also implies an ideal design for a particular purpose - in other words, specialization. This can be an ambitious model since it lends itself to program expansion, though at the same time acknowledging constraints in design and resources that may exist.

Academic Department Model

Clark (1987) describes the expansion of college and university departments based upon the dynamics of knowledge creation within academic disciplines. For example, as frontiers of research expand, new fields of inquiry are developed which lead to additional academic positions established within departments in order to address these

subfields. The capacity for expansion, at least theoretically, is limitless. No one can really predict what any particular academic field will look like in 20 years. All we can be sure of is that there will be change as new areas are discovered, and, perhaps, old areas abandoned. Many would argue, however, that the latter alternative rarely comes to pass.

Applied to continuing education, the horizontal departmental model also implies an evolving, developing, academic discipline-oriented unit which continually pushes against the margins. Perhaps this model of continuing higher education is most

appropriate for a graduate research university whose self-identity is tied up with the knowledge explosion. Certainly, it is a model without limits and implies an abundance of resources. The implementation of this approach might entail offering courses in the subject area of adult education. As an example, the University of London's Birkbeck College, through its Centre for Extramural Studies, offers a non-credit certificate program in adult education designed for practitioners.

Laminate Model

The process of lamination fuses or joins together a number of structural components. Usually in a sheet format, laminates such as plywood or now in new metal technologies, are extremely strong, durable and flexible. Yet, there is also a maximum size beyond which they are not practical, either in terms of function or cost. The laminate is a rather static, fixed model compared with the omnibus or department. A continuing education laminate might include a set number of well-defined functions, such as contract training,

conferences, and short courses, which are performed in an extremely efficient, effective manner. This laminate model describes a good number of continuing higher education programs whose activities are largely already established. It is an attractive model largely because it preserves both diversity with a concern for process technology.

Amoeba Model

This organic model has no fixed shape or form. Instead, the protoplasmic mass can flow in various directions simultaneously. It is characterized by movement and change and has been a very successful form of life that coexists with other more highly evolved species. The opportunistic dimension of continuing higher education makes the amoeba model appealing. Part of the "saga" of the continuing education profession revolves about the mandate to find a need and fill it. Being so market driven implies a searching out and flow in many experimental directions simultaneously. The changing picture of the environment also implies a counter-flow, as

well, should market conditions alter. The amoeba model conveys a structural softness with an emphasis on adaptability. Internally, however, there is a nucleus and a variety of specialized organs that fulfill a management function.

Ghetto Model

In addition to the Third World metaphor, another related, political model exists - that of the ghetto. Undesirable and marginal populations -- economically, politically and socially -- are relegated to the ghetto where their presence does not bother nor intrude upon others. Services are generally poor to

non-existent, a Hobbesian existence with neither amenities nor peace of mind. Applied to the university, marginal populations of part-time adult students are made to feel unwelcome in full-time traditional programs which are not adapted to their needs. Often a continuing education unit exists to serve these populations with a paucity of resources at its disposal. Course offerings may be fewer than necessary and some think of substandard quality. Yet, the vitality of the human spirit with its infinite creative potential can help to fashion a viable subculture of beauty, variety, and substance.

Rebel Model

The subculture of marginality inherent in the field of continuing education may serve to attract as practitioners those who feel marginal or trapped between the appeals of conventionality and radicalism. To be successful requires a passionate commitment to principle and a willingness to be forcefully engaged against establishment values in perpetual struggle, strife, and the process of selfdefinition. For the rebel, adult education is a "cause" and part of an existential search for meaning.

Social Worker Model

There is a strong affinity between the social worker and the rebel since both adhere to a program of societal reform through continuing education. The social worker views continuing education as a "helping" profession. There is a strong emphasis on

vocational training, adult basic education, education for specialized constituencies in need, including the poor, the disadvantaged, the elderly. Interestingly, the present popularity within four year colleges and

universities of "Lifelong Learning Programs" for senior citizens derives from the application of a marketing model rather than one drawn from the social services.

Mediator Model

Colleges are often viewed as complex, highly abstract bundles of critically important esoteric research and scholarly activity which are impossible to grasp either discretely or in totality. Continuing education as an "applied" area takes research and transmogrifies it into something more readily understood and appreciated. This model, then, places continuing higher education at the interface of the university and the larger, external community.

The rationale for this interpretive model is articulated at length by Lynton and Elman (1987). It is a particularly appealing model for presidents, university development and information officers, and others who are constantly trying to explain the university to outsiders, including politicians. The downside of the interpretive model is that it relegates continuing education to that of a derivative subsystem with little independence. Furthermore, in the dialogue between town and gown, the middleman is likely to be misunderstood or, worse yet, caught between the incompatibility of unrealistic demands made by the public and the inadequate resources of the university, thereby dampening its capacity to adequately respond.

Bureaucracy Model

Because this model suppresses the content dimension of continuing education in favor of the bureaucratic procedures of administration, continuing education is viewed as a way of processing an additional stream of students through the educational machinery of the university. It is possible to view the work of continuing education professionals as a form of enrollment

management, similar to that which transpires within the realm of college admissions or the underpinning provided by offices of undergraduate and graduate studies. Continuing education units which administer and manage a university summer session may, inadvertently, provide a rationale for the application of this model to interpret distinctively different continuing education activities they may also conduct such as program development. Essentially, it is a restricted vision of continuing education since it downplays the creation of new academic programs.

Sailboat Model

The sailboat is dependent upon the wind, although it may also have an auxiliary means of power - usually a small, fuel powered, engine for use in situations of no wind or when maneuvering in close quarters. The continuing education sailboat is kept in motion by enrollments. To maintain movement, it must follow the breeze programmatically, perhaps changing course from time to time as the winds (student interest in programs) shift in both direction and magnitude. Permanent support, independent of those resources generated by enrollment, is viewed as supplemental to what the continuing education unit can and must generate from its tuition supported, market driven, activities. Grant support for special purposes can also be a source of motion, but this, too, is subject to dramatic shifts in direction.

Facilitator Model

This popular model places continuing education in a relationship supportive of other college programs which are assisted in some way or another by the continuing education office. Such support may take the form of program scheduling, enrolling students, budgeting, providing logistical classroom support, and conducting evaluations. The continuing education unit may even develop the program concept and then

take it to an academic department which supplies a faculty member.

The facilitative model has been viewed benignly as symbiotic, since both academic

department and continuing education appear to derive benefits. It is also seen as an expression of institutional specialization, with each subsystem performing a unique role. Conversely, critics find fault with continuing education's subordinated status, providing the essential, but unappreciated, support functions. Moreover, in some iterations of "facilitator" continuing education is expected to implement any and all programmatic ideas brought to the unit's attention by other sectors of the college. This reactive posture becomes exceedingly awkward and uncomfortable when programs do poorly.

Melange Model

Many different programs and activities are found in the continuing education melange. On some campuses it may include a summer session and summer camp, coordination of conference facilities including a residential component, economic development forums, campus media support, and a crafts center. Any or all of these elements may rotate in or out of the unit over time depending upon prevailing administrative viewpoints, budgetary viability, or personality factors. In short, there is no unifying philosophy for continuing education that would provide guidelines for determining what activities the unit should or should not conduct.

Nevertheless, some melanges may be highly successful, with a unique, if not adventitious, blending of ingredients. Far

too often, the mixture falls short of expectations, leaving one to speculate on what should be eliminated. In contrast to the omnibus or amoeba, the melange is complete improvisation based upon what ingredients are at hand at a particular time. Also while an amoeba has its own organic dynamism, the melange is a recipient of what others add or subtract.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Clearly these models are not exhaustive, and it is likely that others will be created based upon further research and experience. These twelve just begin to suggest ways of

conceptualizing greater variety in continuing higher education.

From observation, I know it may be possible to have a continuing education division or school consisting of several subunits, each driven by its own value system: (a) a contract unit that is market driven; (b) a credit curriculum that may be animated by traditional academic norms, but with some adaptation for non-traditional part-time adult students; (c) a grant supported unit that functions opportunistically, depending upon what funding sources are currently available; a social service component that conducts traditional (d) community service outreach projects such as remedial education; and (e) non-credit training and leisure oriented courses that are tuition supported.

In fact, what I am describing is the typical omnibus continuing education unit, perhaps the most prevalent model for American continuing higher education that tries to be, simultaneously, many things for many different publics.

But, at what point do we determine that the omnibus is filled? Should constraints be imposed by logistical considerations only? For example, in the illustration just cited, are we to make decisions to expand or constrict a specific function such as contract training on the availability of resources? Or, should the judgment be based on notions of institutional appropriateness? (Freedman 1987). Looking at this from another perspective, a highly politicized definition of the university taking a Third World view might argue that all continuing education growth should be initially inspired by the need to construct a sound and stable economic base, one that would help preserve autonomy. Growth in contract training could indeed provide that security. On the other hand, a strong, pervasive, social worker ideology would be highly predictive on where expansion should take place, most likely not in corporate training programs.

We very quickly find that the satisfaction of matching our own adult education program with a particular model (if

we are able to do this) gives way to the frustration of realizing that this exercise is inadequate for the demands of administrative decision making encountered in real life situations. In short, a model that may explain what we are (such as a laminate) may not suggest what future action we should take. Clearly, there is a need for an overarching continuing education value structure or ideology that is able to unite divergent subunits on behalf of a larger purpose and also provide some basis for guiding growth. From this intellectual base, leadership behavior is likely to be more valid than if it were simply a determinant of administrative structure.

This point brings us back to the marketing model, stressing program development and sales used to introduce this paper. "Cash cows" generating excess revenue may very well be essential if the continuing education unit is to engage in certain types of community service programs that are not financially remunerative and for which there are no other sources of fiscal support. Clearly communicating this rationale to continuing education program coordinators could lead to a healthy airing of the values and assumptions underlying administrative decisions. Within the ensuing dialogues, explorations of model building can add complexity as well as a subtlety to discussions of purpose and, later, strategy.

The process of model building is richly rewarding for the light that it casts upon our activities. Seeing critically, what we believed to be a "given" as one of several equally valid alternatives frees continuing education from being a prisoner of unexamined assumptions. This enlightened stance is readily incorporated in adult education programs created for other professions. How fitting that it become a leitmotif for our own development.

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BOOK REVIEW

by

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Shor, I. CULTURE WARS: SCHOOL AND SOCIETY IN THE CONSERVATIVE RESTORATION 1969-1984. Boston: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1986. 238 pages.

Bertrand Russell (1931) said that "the universe is all spots and jumps" (p. 98). I have a similar impression of history. The 1960s in North America, rather than being merely an extension of its past, was a decade of the unforeseen, the revolutionary, the dynamic; the language was one of possibilities, and the

questions challenged established authority. Yet, the two decades that followed the 1960s reflect a conservative restoration, a coalition of social, economic, educational, and cultural forces that attempted to subdue the momentum of the earlier decade's queries. And it is within this social and political backdrop that adult education in North America has grown and, at the same time, been shaped.

In his book, CULTURE WARS, Ira Shor describes this restoration and its efforts to use the curriculum of the school to intercede in complex and global social predicaments. He does not view schooling as something that is confined behind the walls of buildings; he sees it as situated within the race, class, gender, and culture dynamics that exist in the broader society. Our educational system, as viewed by Shor, is an arena in which different groups with varying conceptions of what constitutes important knowledge scuffle over outcomes and procedures. The culture within the school is the result of this melee, a culmination of compromises and accords between factions. In this sense, the process of schooling is unremittingly political.

CULTURE WARS is an important contribution to the dialogue within radical education that is associated with other North Americans such as Apple, Giroux, and Wexler. Many of our radical educational writings focus on the relationship between education and the social issues of gender, class, race, and culture but are not, however, accessible to a broad audience. Instead, they are published in academic journals or scholarly books and thus confined to the speech community of a fairly rarefied group of professional educators and academicians. What makes this book somewhat special, and in many ways separates it from others in the radical camp, is its language: It is written in a relatively easy-to-understand manner, one that places commonly known social and political events in a certain perspective. The language in CULTURE WARS is, for the most part, public, not private.

Shor discusses three principal phases of school reform in his examination of public efforts

to regulate curriculum so that it could conform to dominant political and social needs. The first, from 1971-75, he called, "The War for Careerism." Shor states:

> The swing to careerism thus had very little to do with improving the quality of life, with insuring economic recovery, with the superiority of professional over liberal education, or with rational manpower planning. Careerism from Nixon to Reagan was what it had always been--a confirmation of social inequality, a prevention against class-leveling, and a replacement of opposition intellect with business training. (pp. 55-6)

In this sense, the move toward careerism in the school curriculum was a shift away from the activism and aspirations of the 1960s. Shor notes several profound effects: the channeling of students towards low-wage jobs, the lessening of exposure (through the curriculum) to social issues, and the interference of critical learning from the humanities.

Shor's second phase, from 1975-82, was related to language competence and was seen as a literacy crisis. Shor termed this phase "The War on Illiteracy." As he noted, "the conservative tide had overtaken the 1960s, and a mounting conservative climate existed to use traditionalist themes like back-to-basics and anti-egalitarian notions like mass illiteracy"(p. 61). These themes, in Shor's examination, explained away the economic problems within society and, at the same time, placed the blame on students for the apparent drop in standardized test scores, a placement which justified inequality in school performance results and in social status.

The third and final phase Shor discusses, from 1982-84, is embedded in the demands of

authorities for more discipline in the schools, greater curriculum attention to academic subjects, and computer training. Shor calls this phase "The War for Excellence and against Mediocrity." If the success and failure of careerism and back-to-basics were the deactivation of students, the task for the 1983 reforms was to reactivate them in directions needed by business and government (p. 107). Ironically, the agenda for this 1983 official educational gamble put the educational system up for scrutiny and reform by encouraging a critical look at the system itself. Both A NATION AT RISK and THE PAIDEIA PROPOSAL mirrored this scrutiny and, as Shor claims, reflect the rhetoric of alarm and the official agendas for reform.

Shor's interpretation of social events and forces along with their impact on educational policy and curriculum needs careful reading. While some of the radical theorists in education have moved away from the correspondence theory of people like Bowles and Gintis (SCHOOLING IN CAPITALIST AMERICA, 1976), Shor's thesis retains much of its flavor. His position, at times, seems to engage the more refractory interpretation of ideology and power relations of the early 1970s. While this could be construed as a limitation or throwback, I think Shor does an adequate job of delineating the relationship between education and certain broader social forces without allowing his thesis to fall into the lock-step widget of correspondence theory.

In the end, Shor proposes one operational goal for the classroom: critical literacy.

> Critical Literacy does not inject students with dominant ideology. It does not place cultivated expression on a pedestal. Neither does it present traditional subject matter as the fixed form of wisdom. The most-valued forms of speaking and knowing are not universal standards of excellence but are

> themselves products of power and inequity. They come down through the ages from societies which never provided equal learning to all their members. A desocializing classroom examines all idioms and all objects of study with critical intentions, with democratic interests to challenge domination. (p. 190)

Shor's view is not too distant from that of John Dewey (1916) who, in the early part of this century, condemned the pedagogy of the talking teacher and proclaimed the failure of externally imposed educational ends.

CULTURE WARS is an interesting and challenging book, as Shor ties some events of the past three decades together with the thread of his perspective. "Each of the principal phases of school reform corresponds to a specific political intention in the interest of safeguarding the establishment" (Paulo Freire, Forward, p. xvi). Just as the 1960s represented the "spots and jumps" of a certain historic period, the social and political events of the succeeding two decades embodied reactions to this era, retorts to its language of possibilities, and rejoinders to its

questions.

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CALL FOR MANUSCRIPTS

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NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION

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NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION Volume 6, Number 1,
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EDITORS' PREFACE

This issue of NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION, includes the first article we have ever discussed on-line: CHARACTERISTICS OF DISTANCE EDUCATION STUDENTS AND FACTORS WHICH DETERMINE COMPLETION: A REVIEW. From the number and quality of responses we received, we feel that AEDNET forum is an excellent way to critically examine adult education topics further. We will continue to discuss articles on-line.

This issue of NEW HORIZONS contains three articles on

different adult education topics. CHARACTERISTICS OF DISTANCE EDUCATION STUDENTS AND FACTORS WHICH DETERMINE COMPLETION: A REVIEW by Mary Sheets looks at distance education with a focus on student involvement, program planning administration and evaluation. The article describes the characteristics of participants, compares distance and conventional learners and analyzes factors that affect persistence in distance education.

Robert Ballance's article, WORKING TOWARD MORE EFFECTIVE ADULT CHRISTIAN EDUCATION: A CASE OF YOUNGVILLE BAPTIST CHURCH analyzes adult Christian education in practice. The article critically looks at present delivery methods based on an evaluative study. It recommends the use of adult education methods including learner participation, community outreach and continuous assessment, as ways of improving the effectiveness of Christian education.

In her review of Gilligan's book, IN A DIFFERENT VOICE: PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORY AND WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT, Susan Slusarski clearly examines the six parts of the book's thesis and how they relate to the differences between the sexes. Slusarski's review stresses the importance of understanding human development and gender to improve adult educator effectiveness.

NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION Volume 6, Number 1, Spring 1992

CHARACTERISTICS OF ADULT EDUCATION STUDENTS AND FACTORS WHICH DETERMINE COURSE COMPLETION: A REVIEW

by

Mary Flanagan Sheets

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ABSTRACT

This paper reviews research on participants and persistence in distance education. The purpose of the paper is to relate selected research findings

(contained in published journals or ERIC documents) on participants and persistence to a theoretical framework based on the literature of adult education and distance education. The findings are divided into three categories: descriptive research on distance education participants' characteristics; comparisons of distance students and conventional students; and studies of student characteristics as they relate to persistence in distance education courses and programs. Selected findings in the latter category are further related to other theories of distance education.

INTRODUCTION

In preparing to enter the next century, higher education professionals face the challenges of serving a student population and society that are far more diverse than those of the mid-20th century. Workers of the past tended to be agricultural or blue- collar and their formal educations ending before or at he conclusion of high school. Young persons who chose to enter the professions completed their college educations at relatively young ages and then entered he world of work. Few workers changed jobs frequently; even fewer were inclined to change careers. Women and minorities had only a handful of educational and career opportunities.

In the latter half of this century, however, most persons enjoy some form of access to higher education. Women and minorities may participate more fully in education and the work force. Rapid technological changes compel more persons to seek additional education to understand their jobs. Economic pressures force businesses to resort to shutdowns and layoffs more frequently than in the past; workers, thus, must re-train themselves for new careers. As a result of increased access and increased societal pressures, adults are more likely than ever before to find themselves in need of additional education.

Distance education appears to be in a unique position to serve the needs of any of these newcomers, which include working adults, "second-chancers" who have a history of educational shortcomings, and others who can not or will not participate in the conventional college classroom. Before distance educators can learn how best to serve these students, however, it is important to know more about these various populations and the likelihood for their success in pursuing distance education.

In this paper, a theoretical framework of success in distance education based n the work of Knowles (1980),

Knox (1977), and Coldeway (1986) is presented. his framework is then used to assist in interpreting research in three related areas: descriptive research on distance education participants' characteristics; comparisons of distance students and conventional students; and studies of student characteristics as they relate to persistence in distance education courses and programs. The paper concludes with a discussion of possible future directions in research.

A Framework For Understanding Student Characteristics

Distance education literature parallels much of the adult education literature generally in that it contains numerous studies of student characteristics, especially as they pertain to participation. Such emphasis is not surprising because distance learners, like most adult learners, are voluntary participants. Having knowledge about the phenomena related to participation is vital for the formation of theory and the direction of practice in adult education in general (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982). Likewise, understanding distance education participants, their reasons for involvement in distance education, and the outcomes of their participation is important, not only to explain and predict the participation event itself, but also to determine consequences related to program planning, policy formation, and other aspects of educational practice.

The writings of adult learning theorists provide a framework which may be used to understand the potential relationships between distance student characteristics and outcomes of learning experiences. For example, Knowles (1980) presented a model for predicting behavioral outcomes which showed that a behavior was influenced by a combination of the learner's needs plus the learner's situation and personal characteristics. He further emphasized educators' involvement in program planning, learning activities, and program evaluation which should proceed by understanding the learner and emphasizing is or her needs.

Knox (1977) also recognized the interplay of various forces as he related them to a developmental-stage orientation of adult life. He considered several forces as significant: the individual's contextual situation; performance in family, work, and community roles; physical condition; personality; and earning interests and abilities. These factors influenced each other and were also dependent on the individual's stage of development. The combination of personal characteristics and developmental stage in turn impacted decisions made by the adult.

The uniqueness of the distance education student's situation is the focus of a theoretical model proposed by Keegan (1986). The separation of student and teacher imposed by distance removes a vital "link" of communication between these two parties. The link must be restored through overt institutional efforts so that the teaching-learning transaction may be "reintegrated" Keegan, 1986, p. 120). Citing Tinto (1975), Keegan hypothesized that students who did not receive adequate reintegration measures would be less likely to experience complete academic and social integration into institutional life. Consequently, such students would be more likely to drop out.

The importance of individual characteristics and needs in the distance education process may be observed in a model of distance education success proposed by Coldeway (1986). In this model, "success" is a function of the combination of four factors: personal characteristics, including contextual factors of background and experience; motivations for enrollment; institutional factors, such as pacing requirements and delivery methods; and course factors, including course design and delivery. In this model, success may be measured in different ways. It may be determined by students' persistence in courses and programs; however, it is also possible to measure success according to individual growth and development.

Coldeway's (1986) model, when considered in light of the more general concepts regarding adult needs and characteristics (Knox, 1977; Knowles, 1980), as well as Keegan's (1986) theoretical framework, may be used to enhance understanding regarding the results of studies about distance student characteristics. Although students' characteristics and needs may not account completely for success in a distance education course or program, according to Coldeway's (1986) model, it is possible that these actors contribute to success. Additionally, knowledge about student characteristics may help in understanding who is likely to participate in distance education and, conversely, why others choose not to participate.

Descriptive Studies Of Student Characteristics

Demographic studies

Numerous studies of the demographic data of distance education students have been performed. Table 1 summarizes findings in a number of open universities regarding the age, gender, and work status of students. According to this table, distance education students,

generally, are at least 24 years old, and the vast majority is employed. The ratio of male to female students varies, probably due to cultural differences and dissimilarities in secondary education between countries.

- -

Table 1

Students Enrolled in Open Universities

By Age, Gender, and Work Status

(Percent)

	Massey U. (N.Zland.)	Evrymn U. (Israel)	Athabasca (Canada)	OU of Nthlds	British OU	FeU (FRG)	UNED (Spain)
Age 24 or older	85	69	67	92	95	73	76
Male	37	47	39	67	56	75	70
Female	63	53	61	33	44	25	30
Employed	83	NA	86	73	81	67	88

Explanations and Sources:

Massey University, New Zealand (Tremaine & Owen, 1984)
Everyman's University, Israel (Guri, 1986)
Athabasca University, Canada (Peruniak, 1983)
Open University of the Netherlands (Boon & van Enckevort, 1987)
British Open University (Rumble, 1983)
Fernuniversitat: Gesamthochuschule, Federal Republic of Germany (Rumble, 1983)
Universidad Nacional de Educacio'n a Distancia, Spain (Rumble, 1983)
NA: Not available

- -

In the United States, a survey of students in telecourses offered through community colleges disclosed that about two-thirds were women, and about half of the students were at least thirty years old. Over half had at least one dependent, and two-thirds were married. Eighty percent were employed, and over half of these were working full-time while pursuing their studies (Brey & Grigsby, 1984). In general, these trends match what one would expect to find in

overall community college enrollments (Ziggerell, 1986). However, Brey and Grigsby's (1984) survey also revealed that 40% of the telecourse students surveyed were simultaneously enrolled full-time in on-campus classes. This finding is consistent with a trend noted by Coldeway (1986).

Educational Background

Throughout the world, the educational background of distance students ranges from less than high school to completion of a university degree. Enrollments in which at least 25% of students have not completed high school or are otherwise unqualified for conventional university admission included Everyman's University (Guri, 1986) and Massey University (Tremaine & Owen, 1984). On the other hand, 20% of U.S. tele-course students had at least an associate degree (Brey & Grigsby,1984).

The Student Population of Open University of the Netherlands (Netherlands OU) presented an interesting paradox in terms of academic preparation; while over 40% were ineligible to study at a conventional Dutch university, just over 40% had a higher education diploma (Boon & van Enckervort, 1987). New student enrollment trends were even more puzzling; in 1984, when he Netherlands OU opened, 37% of the students had a higher education degree. In 1987, 53% of new students held a higher education diploma. Boon and van Enckervort (1987) speculated that when the Netherlands OU opened, there was a larger potential population of persons who wanted a "second chance" at higher education. Over time, that backlog diminished, until the Netherlands OU is increasingly used by more well-educated students for continuing education.

Overall, descriptive findings regarding demographics and educational attainment of distance education students provide information about who participates in distance education. However, such studies alone cannot disclose what factors, if any, are related to educational outcomes of distance education participants.

Comparisons Of Distance And Conventional Students

Comparisons of distance and conventional students provide information about students that is useful in determining who is likely to participate in each system. Also, comparisons of these two systems frequently include discussions about motivations for participation in distance education as opposed to conventional study.

Distance students have been compared with traditional students in terms of one or more factors, including reference for structure, self-confidence, and perception of the instructor. Kahl and Cropley (1986) found that German distance students had a significantly greater preference for structure than did fulltime, conventional students. The same distance students also demonstrated significantly less self-confidence than did their conventional counterparts. Knapper (1988) agreed that distance students were likely to have insecurities about learning. Self-confidence and a preference for structure may be negatively related; that is, the less self-confidence one has, the more he or she prefers structure (Kahl & Cropley, 1986). Alternatively, students may prefer structure because it allows for faster, more efficient study (Kahl & Cropley, 1986; Knapper, 1988) and thus a quicker payoff in terms of affective or skills-related benefits (Kahl & Cropley, 1986).

Generally, researchers have acknowledged the broad life experiences that older students bring to higher education situations. However, there appears to be disagreement as to what these students' reactions will be in the distance education environment. Referring to telecourse students, Curran (1987) warned that these students will be more critical than conventional students, and more likely to challenge the instructor. On the other hand, Knapper (1988) believed that distance students may overvalue the instructor as an expert and authority figure.

Motives for studying at a distance as opposed to studying conventionally relate to both the impracticality of attending a conventional institution and preference for the distance education system itself. For example, Australian students said they chose distance education over conventional education because of remoteness from a conventional university (Williams & Sharma, 1988; Stanford and others, 1980); the cost of commuting to a conventional university was also a factor influencing choice (Stanford and others, 1980). Both Australian and U.S. students cited scheduling conflicts between conventional classes and other activities as a reason for choosing distance education (Brey & Grigsby, 1984; Stanford & others, 1980; Williams & Sharma, 1988). Other factors that may account for the choice of distance education over conventional education include reference for distance education (Stanford & others, 1980; Williams & Sharma,1988) and more liberal admission policies of distance institutions as opposed to conventional institutions (Stanford & others, 1980).

The above findings suggest that some comparisons of distance and conventional students may yield useful information about participation, especially regarding participants' time constraints and personal preferences for distance education. However, the same findings are limited in at least two ways. First, the studies were not designed to determine whether these factors make a difference in success in a distance education setting. Second, some findings confound the characteristics of distance students in particular with those of adult students in general. For example, the lack of self-confidence and preference for structure noted for distance students (Kahl & Cropley, 1986) actually may be present in many adult students who are returning to education after a long absence. The disagreement on distance students' reactions to instructors (Knapper, 1988; Curran, 1987) also may reflect opinions about adult students in general. Such confusion is not surprising; according to at least one source, there is no difference in personal characteristics between distance students and other adult students (Will'en, 1982, cited by Keegan, 1986). To control such confounding, studies which compare conventional students to distance students should ensure that groups are similar on factors such as age, work status, number of hours enrolled, and length of time since last enrollment.

Student Characteristics and Persistence

As is evident from the research reviewed above, descriptive studies are limited in the information they can add to the distance education literature. To further develop a theoretical base of distance education, data on participants should be linked to other variables of interest. A factor of interest to the higher education community in general, and especially to distance educators (Coldeway, 1986; Keegan, 1986) is that of persistence. By linking data on learners to factors of course or program completion, it is possible to attempt to explain or predict outcomes in the distance education setting. At the same time, the study of persistence helps distance educators improve programs and address accountability issues.

Data on students and persistence may be divided into two main categories (Gibson, 1990): personal factors, including demographic data, educational attainment, learning styles, and motivation; and external factors, consisting of post-enrollment student behaviors and institutional interventions. Research within each category is reviewed below.

Personal Factors

Demographic data. Older students have been found to have higher course completion rates (Rekkedal, 1983) as well as higher degree completion rates in graduate programs (Langenbach & Korhonen, 1988) and undergraduate programs (Langenbach & Korhonen, 1986, cited by Coggins, 1988). However, Coggins (1988) found no significant differences related to age regarding bachelor degree completions.

Occupational status of learners has been found to be insignificant when related to program completions in several studies (Langenbach & Korhonen, 1988; Langenbach & Korhonen, 1986, cited by Coggins, 1988; Coggins, 1988). However, Carr and Ledwith (1980, cited in Cookson, 1989) found that the course dropout rate of housewives was less than half the overall rate, while the attrition ate for those who listed manual trades as an occupation was 50% higher than the overall rate.

Among other demographic variables, both gender and marital status have been found to be insignificant in persistence studies (Langenbach & Korhonen, 1988; Langenbach & Korhonen, 1986, cited by Coggins, 1988; Coggins, 1988). The ambiguous results cited above are not suprising; according to Boshier (1988, cited by Gibson, 1990), it is possible that less than ten percent of the variance regarding the prediction of persistence is accounted for by demographic variables.

Academic Factors.

Educational level prior to enrollment in a distance course or program has been found to be significantly related to persistence (Rekkedal, 1983; Coggins, 988; Langenbach & Korhonen, 1986, cited by Coggins, 1988), as has length of time since last educational enrollment (Rekkedal, 1983; Coggins, 1988) or since completing the bachelor's degree (Langenbach & Korhonen,1988). Several researchers have found that students who had prior experience with nontraditional education were more likely to persist than those with exclusively conventional experience (Rekkedal, 1983; Langenbach Korhonen, 1988; Coldeway and Spencer, 1980, cited in Coldeway, 1986).

Learners having high prior academic achievement and recent educational experience may be more likely to persist because they have become "lifelong learners" who are accustomed to devoting leisure time to educational activities. Alternatively, these factors, plus prior experience with nontraditional education,

may indicate that the amount, timing, and type of experience influence persistence (Coggins, 1988).

Motivation and learning styles. There are inconclusive findings regarding the role of motivation in course completion. For example, in a study of 200 correspondence students, Sung (1986, cited in Cookson, 1989) used a multiple linear regression model and found that motivational factors were not significant; rather, "perception of program" and the student's perception of is individual life situation accounted for 19% and 21% of the variance, respectively. On the other hand, Donehower (1968), in an early study of University of Nevada correspondence students, reported that those who enrolled for college credit or teacher certification purposes were more likely to complete a course than other students. In a first-time Canadian university telecourse aimed at non-degree registered nurses who wished to obtain the bachelor's degree, only one out of 37 students withdrew. In a second course which attracted 81 students, only two withdrew (Carver and MacKay, 1986). In a descriptive study of students in a course offered by the British National Extension College, Rouse and Lewis (1984) found that a group of preministerial students completed the course at a rate nearly 50% higher than the other students in the course combined. The authors attributed the higher completion rate to the regular meetings the students held as a group; the contacts they ad with the group coordinator and their local clergy; and their vocational calling.

Persisters in bachelor degree programs were more likely than nonpersisters to expect high academic performance; conversely, non-persisters were more likely o expect "C" grades. However, these two groups did not differ in terms of other learning style measurements (Coggins, 1988; Langenbach & Korhonen, 1986, cited by Coggins, 1988).

The "needs" portion of Knowles' (1980) behavioral model may be translated as "motivations." Both this model and the model of student success proposed by Coldeway (1986) indicate that motivation is quite important in determining success in distance education courses and programs. Coldeway (1986) indicates that motivational factors, combined with institutional pacing and delivery factors, have a high correlation with success.

Environmental Factors

Student behavior following enrollment. Some studies have found significant relationships between the behavior of distance students following enrollment and course completion. Coldeway and Spencer (1980, cited by

Coldeway, 1986) found a positive correlation between students who completed the first unit of a course and course completions. Peruniak (1983) determined through a case study of Athabasca University students, all of whom had some previous postsecondary education, that those who completed their courses studied more hours per week and studied a longer time during an examination period than the "withdrawers." The withdrawers not only studied less, but they tended to study the same amount of time each week, regardless of examination periods. Course completers also initiated contact with the university nearly four times more frequently than withdrawers.

Wong and Wong (1978-1979, cited by Coggins, 1990) have indicated that the submission of the first assignment may indicate a student's commitment to complete a course. Study habits and institutional contacts would also appear to indicate course commitment. In terms of Coldeway's (1986) model, these factors may demonstrate the extent of a student's motivation; subsequent success (in terms of scoring well on assignments and examinations) may serve to increase one's motivation to complete the course.

Institutional policies and interventions. Institutional policies and interventions in the distance education process may affect course completions. Coldeway (1986) studied completion rates at three different institutions for students who were enrolled in the same course which was delivered employing the same methods. He found that completion rates at one university, which used pacing techniques, were more than twice as high as completion rates at the other two institutions, in which the courses were open-ended.

Another study used Keegan's (1986) theoretical framework of reintegration of he teaching act to determine whether student persistence and achievement were influenced by institutional support in establishing study groups. An experiment yielded insignificant findings (Amundsen & Bernard, 1989).

Rekkedal (1983) performed two experimental studies of institutional intervention which had significant results. In one study, students who were mailed encouraging post cards and letters following their failure to submit assignments responded at a rate of 46%, versus a 31% response rate for the control group. In a second study, assignments of the experimental group were graded by an onsite tutor; accordingly, turnaround times were a median of 5.6 days, versus the 8.3 day median for the control group. Because of the

decreased turnaround times, completion rates in the experimental group were 91%, while the rate of completion in the control group was only 69%.

Some distance education researchers have attempted to adapt an integrative model of attrition using one proposed by Tinto(1975) which predicted attrition of conventional students. In this longitudinal model, student background characteristics influence the way in which a student interacts with the college environment. These interactions affect the way the student integrates with college on two levels, academic and social. Throughout the college years, the extent of a student's academic and social integration affects his or her decisions regarding whether to persist or drop out. The Tinto (1975) model has been widely cited and tested in studies of conventional students (Bean, 1982, cited by Kember, 1989), and has also been used in a number of distance education studies (see Kember, 1989). Kember (1989, p. 284) identified the Tinto model as "the best starting point" in terms of devising an attrition model for distance education. However, the model requires modification for the separation of teacher and learner and the separation of learner and learning group, factors which Keegan (1986) identifies as differentiating distance education from conventional education.

Taylor and others (1986, cited by Kember, 1989) used Tinto's model to explain the relationship between institutional interventions and attrition; however, they found no consistent relationship between these factors. Sweet (1986, cited by Cookson, 1989) used Tinto's model to relate student characteristics to academic and social integration following enrollment. His results indicated that the model is able to explain a significant amount of variance in persistence. However, Kember (1989) criticized the Sweet study for failure to modify any of the Tinto model's variables according to the requirements of distance education.

Kember (1989) attempted to modify Tinto's model to incorporate some of the unique characteristics and situations of distance education students. Among the factors relevant to distance education were the academic environment and its integration, and social and work environment and its integration. The academic environment consisted of the study materials and academic and administrative integrations. Academic integration occurred on two planes: normative congruence, or the relationship between the student and the study materials; and collective affiliation, which included not only the writing style used in the study packet, but also the frequency and nature of contact

between the student and the institution. Kember replaced Tinto's integration of the conventional student into campus life with the integration between the distance education student and his work, home and social commitments.

From the standpoint of theory, the study of institutional interventions is important in several ways. Communication between learner and institution is considered the foundation of Holmberg's (1986) theory of guided didactic conversation. Contact between student and teacher may occur through written correspondence, telephone, or telecommunication through mainframe or personal computer networks. Communication is to transcend simply the correction of assignments to encourage "feelings of belonging, personal relations, and RAPPORT between students and the supporting organization" (Holmberg, 1986, p. 109). Rekkedal's (1983) studies of follow-up of potential non-completers and improvement of grading turnaround appear to coincide with Holmberg's theory.

Even so, a distance education student's success is probably associated with variables in addition to his or her communication with the sponsoring institution. Kember's (1989) adaptation of Tinto's (1975) longitudinal model of attrition recognized the importance of not only the student's academic integration, but also the integration between the student and the portions of his or her environment representing work, home, and social obligations. Garrison and Baynton's model of the distance learning transaction (1987, cited by Gibson, 1990) may recognize the influence of some of these environmental components. The model considers learner control as it is influenced through the balance of three factors: independence, power, and support. Independence refers to the learner's ability to choose from alternative learning objectives, activities, and evaluation methods; it is closely related to Moore's (1973) concept of learner autonomy. Power is measured by the student's ability to take responsibility for the learning process. Support includes learning materials and facilities, experts outside the institution, and other environmental factors such as emotional support and financial support. It appears possible that the control a student could achieve over support factors relative to the independence and power components of this model could in turn e related to decisions regarding persistence.

CONCLUSION

Clearly, many research opportunities exist in the area

of student success in distance education. First, however, it is important to determine the relevant questions for research. Future descriptive studies perhaps should focus on personal and situational factors that go beyond the traditional questions of gender, age, and educational background. Furthermore, as noted above, comparisons of distance students with other adult students may not yield much useful information (Will'et, 1982, cited by Keegan, 1986). Further studies of the relationship between various student-related factors and persistence certainly appear warranted. Gibson (1990) notes a number of questions to be asked regarding these relationships, such as the influence of learning styles, resources, and the maintenance of student motivation, respectively, on student outcomes.

Finally, models of attrition such as the one proposed by Kember (1989) should be studied empirically, with particular attention toward the roles that institutional intervention and other environmental factors play in determining course completion. The role of research is not, as Feasley (1983) states, "... to identify those students who will not be successful in distance education and to persuade them to choose the classroom instead" (p. 8). Rather, for most distance students, learning at a distance is the only alternative (Coldeway, 1986). Future research should attempt to answer questions about the role of both institutional interventions and other environmental factors in the success of distance education participants.

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WORKING TOWARD MORE EFFECTIVE ADULT CHRISTIAN EDUCATION: A CASE OF YOUNGSVILLE BAPTIST CHURCH

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ABSTRACT

Youngsville Baptist Church's Sunday School Program, its only avenue for adult Christian education, is not meeting the faith-related educational needs of its congregants, nor is it attracting new participants. This paper represents the author's attempt to analyze and understand the reasons the program is not fulfilling those needs. Recommendations for intentional changes in the adult Christian education at Youngsville Baptist Church are included.

INTRODUCTION

Churches and synagogues are institutions of education because they serve as places of instruction for faith-

related matters. The primary avenue for such faith-related adult education in most Protestant churches is the century old institution, Sunday School.

At Youngsville Baptist Church, the Sunday School program for children and youth is well-structured. Faith education for the church's adults, however, is not. While Sunday morning worship attendance for the congregation during the last several years has increased dramatically, attendance in Sunday School for all adult age groupings in the church is poor and continues to decline.

Over the last several decades, decreasing attendance and interest in church, whether it be confirmation, church school classes or worship, particularly within adult age groupings, has made it clear to many religious educators that the church is not fulfilling its educational mission and purpose (Apps, 1972). The adult Sunday School program of Youngsville Baptist Church is in such a dilemma: Sunday School is available, but few adults participate.

THE SITUATION

Background

Youngsville Baptist Church was established in 1880. Its constitution contains the congregation's governing principles. That document's only statement, however, regarding the church's objectives and responsibilities with regard to education of its members reads: "This body shall be a church to help people experience a growing knowledge of God and humankind" (p. 1).

The church's primary avenue for generating that growing knowledge has been its Sunday School program, which has met on Sunday mornings for the past 111 years. Currently, adult class groupings for the Sunday School at the church include the traditional Senior Adult Ladies' Class, Senior Adult Men's Class, and the Adult I Class--a class of mostly middle-aged, married adults. All of these are lecture-type, "banking" classes (Freire, 1990, p. 58). Finally, there is the Adult II Class, a class for any adult, age 18 and over, single or married, who prefers a discussion-type format.

Throughout its 111-year history, the church has maintained an average total membership of 200, with a Sunday School enrollment average of 130. From its inception in 1881 until 1965, the average weekly Sunday School attendance was 102. However, with the beginning of a downward trend in 1965, Sunday School attendance

since then has averaged only 55. Of that 55, the average number present age 18 and above each Sunday has been 44, representing only 22% of its total membership. Moreover, rarely do new participants attend the classes.

Specific Concerns

An evaluative study of the current Sunday School program was conducted. Inactive members were interviewed to determine why they were not participating. This aspect of the study revealed these inactives to be mostly young adults who were recent college graduates or middle- to senior-aged adults who tended to be more inclusive and allowing in their thinking than current older adult Sunday School participants. Among the repeated reasons given for their non-participation were: "I don't have time," "It doesn't meet my needs," or "Sunday School is for children."

Those adults who were participating in the Sunday School program also were interviewed to determine their reasons for participating. The data gathered indicated that this small minority of the congregation are theologically and socially conservative, mostly older adults, and not particularly interested in change of any kind in the structure of the Sunday School program in spite of their knowledge that few outside their age grouping attend. From the interviews, it was discovered that the faithful participation of this minority of older adults resulted from the Sunday School program's nonthreatening routine and sameness throughout the years.

In addition, studies of attendance records kept by various secretaries of the Sunday School program over the years at the Youngsville Church, along with interviews of current Sunday School leadership, revealed some disturbing factors: (a) evaluation of this adult Sunday morning educational program had never been done; (b) the church's mission/purpose statement offered little direction; (c) leadership for the Sunday morning church school had never been carefully selected or trained; (d) teachers in the Sunday School classes were usually assigned their positions by the church's Nominating Committee each year without consideration to those skills needed for successful teaching; (e) teacher training and support had never been considered or offered; and, (f) Southern Baptist curriculum materials had been used without evaluation.

PLANNED CHANGE

The Dilemma

This study revealed that the adult education program at Youngsville Baptist Church-- its sole component being the Sunday morning Sunday School--had stagnated. In addition, it was discovered that those currently attending the Sunday School were mostly older adults. From the interviews, it also became obvious that these older adults who were participating came to this educational experience not as much for learning as they did out of a life-long loyalty to an unchanging program. For many of those not participating, particularly young adults, Sunday School was seen as a program that had not kept pace with the changing times, needs, and interests of the congregation's majority of members. During the interview process, a number of young adults in particular described this program as superficial, indicating that it offered them no challenge of thought. In order to make the program challenging for all adults, planned change seemed essential (Boone, 1985).

The Change Process

According to Boone (1985), in order for the change agent to enable successful program planning for change to take place, a series of considerations must be made. First, "a thorough understanding of and commitment to the mission, philosophy, functions, structure, processes, and culture of the organization" by the change agent is needed (1985, p. 2). One of the first, specific, change-directed goals for this project, then, had to do with the explicit expansion and fine tuning of the mission/purpose statement in the church's constitution concerning education. In the creation of that new mission/purpose statement, objectives were made clear, precise and meaningful (Krathwohl, Bloom, & Masia, 1964).

Next, important to an analysis of any adult education organization and its publics is the concept of linkage. In this project, mapping, an important element of linkage, included a consideration of social structure and social stratification (Loomis, 1960). Attention to social differentiation was also useful (Bertrand, 1967)

Finally, a cultural analysis was done (Spicer, 1952). These steps surfaced unspoken class and cultural differences among current and potential participants in the adult Sunday School program of the church. For example, the study revealed that the range of education for adults currently in the church ran from elderly

members who never had the opportunity to finish high school to those with masters and professional degrees in medicine and law. In addition, there were those with minimal financial resources, as well as those with assets that would qualify them as middle and upper class. Such a mapping of the Youngsville congregation's various publics and significant others revealed a wide span of ages, socio-economic backgrounds, and cultural differences not realized earlier.

This study revealed that the majority of the congregation is made up of retired adults. Those individuals who participate in the Sunday School program indicated that they were satisfied with the adult Sunday School program as it was. At the same time, however, the study revealed that many adults who had not been active participants were not satisfied. While they offered no specific suggestions, these unsatisfied individuals cited needs for thorough change in the church's current educational program offerings for adults. They complained that Sunday School focussed too much on biblical history and theological abstraction and too little on dealing with personal problems, human need and social justice issues.

Publics discerned in this mapping included various groupings: 10% of the congregation are elderly, frail, and unable to actively participate (mostly age 75+); 40% are active retirees, with the majority of these being widows (age 65+); 25% are middle- to senior-aged persons, mostly married couples whose children have grown up and moved away (ages 45-65); 10% are married or divorced/single adults (ages 35-45); 7.5% are younger adults with young children (ages 20-35); and 7.5% are youth (ages 10-18). Significant others included family members and co-workers of the publics named above, long-term residents of the community currently not active members of a church or synagogue, as well as the growing numbers of new residents to the area not yet active as well.

While these figures reveal the diversity of age groupings within the congregation, they also reveal that the majority of the congregants are senior adults. It is this majority which makes up the current Sunday School program. The middle- to senior-aged adults (25% of the congregation), adults 35-45 (10% of the congregation), and young adults 18-35 (7.5% of the congregation) make up a large segment of the congregation that does not feel the adult Sunday School program meets their faith-related educational needs. This is too large of a percentage for church leaders to ignore in program planning.

In order for the change agent to bring about needed change, he or she must understand and relate properly to the leaders of the group (Boone, 1985). Identifying and interfacing with leaders in the congregation, then, was the proper next step. Attention had to be given to various types of leaders. At Youngsville Baptist Church, positional leaders (Boone, 1985), those in positions of authority to actually make key decisions regarding the church's adult education program, included members of the diaconate, the Sunday School superintendent, Sunday School faculty members, and the pastor. Opinion leaders included those persons in the congregation who did not hold key leadership positions, but who had some control over opinions in the congregation and were influential in either the formal or informal decision-making processes (Boone, 1985).

Collaboration with all these leaders, with the current program's class groupings, and with those not participating in the Sunday School, including inactive members and new-comers to the community, was the next step. Translating and incorporating a way to fulfill those needs expressed during collaboration into a planned program for implementation came next in the form of recommendations by the change agent and the church's leaders.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The process outlined above prompted the change agent and lay leaders of the congregation to offer the following list of recommendations for this specific congregation. These recommendations were offered based on their experience with the congregation as its senior minister and experienced lay leaders.

1) Convert from traditional class groupings of a traditional "Sunday School" (such as senior adult men/women, and middle-aged couples) to a group-, interest- or needs-based organization. Groups would form and continually reform on the basis of mutual interests or needs, as interests and needs change and evolve in different life-stages (such as youth, young adulthood, middle-age, retirement) and following significant life events (such as the birth of a child, divorce, the death of a spouse/parent).

2) Similar to those in academic settings, courses should run on a fall/spring semester basis with two shorter summer sessions offered. The study of a particular subject or biblical book would take place within those semester/summer periods.

3) Courses need no longer be bound to a predetermined curriculum. Education by the pastor on curriculum alternatives should be presented to

interested groups. If a class has able researchers willing to do the work, curriculum development for special studies might be done by those individuals themselves prior to the semester/term the course is to be offered.

4) Budget support for special elective courses requiring individuals with special skills/insights that only professionals outside the church membership might possess should be provided by the church. Courses on subjects such as "Issues in Death and Dying," "What the Bible says About Euthanasia," "Caring for the Environment," etc., could be offered. Current events, issues, interests and the needs of members should inform decisions/plans for what courses should be offered.

5) While there would be occasional exceptions, courses should no longer be lecture style. Instead, each course offering should be lead by a facilitator for a more group-centered learning experience that will enable greater individual participation and learning. In addition, appropriate facilitators would be suggested by the group itself and not assigned by the church's Nominating Committee as tradition has dictated. This would involve advanced planning in courses to be offered and facilitators' availability.

6) Leadership and training opportunities for facilitators should be encouraged, with those opportunities being financed by the church. Developing a team of able facilitators would be critical for program continuation and success. The possibility of remuneration for all facilitators should be considered.

7) Meeting times need no longer be exclusive to Sunday morning. Alternative meeting times and places should be encouraged, but well publicized so those interested could make note of those alternative times and places.

8) Evaluation, both formative and summative, of both intended and unintended outcomes, should become a continuing part of the programming process. Such evaluation shall be defined as that process of judging the worth or value of the program by comparing evidence as to what the program is with criteria as to what the program should be (Steele, 1970, cited in Boone). Feedback for program revisions, continuing organization renewal, and accountability of leaders, facilitators and learners to one another and to the congregation as a body would be essential to the continuing success of this new program.

9) Since it does not currently exist, an Education Committee consisting of the pastor, a director of Christian Education--a qualified, capable and willing lay person elected by the congregation to assist the pastor in supervising and coordinating this new program--and at least five others who have a sincere

interest in adult Christian education, should be formed. They will give this new program direction, offer encouragement, make suggestions, coordinate environment and curriculum needs, deal with problems, criticisms and conflict and oversee and promote effective continuing evaluation as noted above.

10) Aggressive publicity, in-church promotion and community visitation would serve as a means for outreach and participation by current members as well as those not currently active in any faith development organization.

Having been accepted by the church body, these recommendations will be implemented in the fall of 1992.

CONCLUSION

This author believes such a faith-related program for adults in a congregation like Youngsville with a membership of 200 is possible and could be very successful, likely evoking considerable growth in faith-related matters and in levels of participation. Such a program, however, would likely experience some difficulties. The program (a) would not be without its critics, both within the congregation and without; (b) would demand much more time, attention, expertise and funds than the current program; (c) could not be offered and delivered without unforseen problems arising; and, (d) would not come about without conflict among some church members. In addition, a good deal more research in curriculum design, development, and evaluation would be required of the change agent (i.e., the pastor).

The Christian church, particularly the smaller churches with troubled adult educational programs, such as Youngsville Baptist Church, need to be more creative in their educational planning, programming, and evaluation. This author believes this particular congregation will benefit from such a creative and innovative adult, faith-related program as outlined above. When implemented, it likely will bring about considerable faith-related growth among its own members and probably would be more attractive to new participants as well.

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BOOK REVIEW

by

Susan Slusarski

Gilligan, C. (1982). IN A DIFFERENT VOICE: PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORY AND WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

A turning point in developmental theory transpired in 1982 with the publication of IN A DIFFERENT VOICE: PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORY AND WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT by Carol Gilligan. Until that time, most developmental studies had been conducted by male researchers with male

subjects. Gilligan was "on the vanguard" (Boucouvalas & Krupp,1990, p. 189) of the movement to examine human development from women's perspectives. Over the past ten years, other researchers have examined the differences of development for men and women; for example, WOMEN'S WAYS OF KNOWING: THE DEVELOPMENT OF SELF, VOICE,AND MIND (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1986) was "...inspired and informed" (p. xi) by Gilligan's work. Indeed, hearing woman's voice is part of the language of feminist researchers today.

Adult educators, both scholars and practitioners, would benefit from first-hand reading of this influential work. Understanding human development is key to our effectiveness as adult educators, and Gilligan's IN A DIFFERENT VOICE provides readers the opportunity to critically examine their own assumptions about adult development. Moreover, the book provides the foundation for many research studies in gender issues and human development. By reading Gilligan's IN A DIFFERENT VOICE, adult educators interested in adult development can gain an understanding of the book's role in the thinking on gender differences and similarities in human development.

Previous to its publication, developmental studies such as those by Kohlberg (1981) and Levinson (1978) had been conducted with men as subjects with the conclusions assumed to be applicable to all adults. Gilligan listened to the voices of women and men in three independent, longitudinal studies and heard, perhaps, a new truth about women's development. IN A DIFFERENT VOICE explores psychological theories of development and postulates real differences in the development of men and women and possible reasons for these differences.

Gilligan's premise that men and women develop differently is based on ten years of research involving three different studies: a study of college students which explored identity and moral development, an abortion decision study which examined the role of conflict and experience in development, and a rights and responsibilities study which focused on conceptions of self and morality using hypothetical moral dilemmas. Gilligan's basic assumption is that the way people talk about their lives is significant. Analyzing the interviews from these studies, Gilligan noticed that men and women were talking differently about their lives. Yet, developmental theory at that time was based only on the responses of male subjects. Women would not necessarily fit this mold, not because their moral development was immature, but rather because they have a different perspective. The difference is

related to the social roles of men and women as they develop; while men tend to strive to separate from others and become autonomous, women seek a connectedness and a balance between responsibility to self and to others.

Gilligan presents her thesis in six parts beginning with "Woman's Place in Man's Life Cycle" (Chapter 1). Reviewing literature (Chekhov's "The Cherry Orchard") as well as work by Freud, Piaget, Erikson, and Kohlberg, Gilligan suggests we have become "...accustomed ...to seeing life through men's eyes" (p.6). A problem in the development of theory has become a problem in understanding women's development. The reality is women have been the caregivers--"Woman's place in man's life cycle has been that of nurturer, caretaker, and helpmate" (p. 17). Men, to develop gender identity, Gilligan suggests, must separate from this cared-for role and become autonomous. To translate this into a developmental process for both men and women is erroneous. Women do not need to separate to develop gender identity but need to identify with the caregiver by connecting. Basing human development on men's development, then shortchanges women.

In Chapter 2, "Images of Relationships," Gilligan develops her argument contrasting Freud's theory with the words of Ann and Jake, Karen and Jeffrey, and Claire. She identifies Freud's theory as problematic, as he was unable to delineate women's perspectives within his framework. She postulates the problem may not be that women do not fit in this framework, but rather that we need to be open to new interpretations of women's perceptions. For example, in the rights and responsibilities study, Jake "...constructs the dilemma as a mathematical formula" while Ann proceeds from "...a premise of connection" (p.37). One is not right and the other wrong; rather, Jake answers from a perspective of separation while Ann answers from a perspective of connectedness.And this "...primacy of separation or connection leads to different images of self and of relationships (p.38). Gilligan advises:

> These disparate visions in their tension reflect the paradoxical truths of human experience--that we know ourselves as separate only so far as we live in connection with others, and that we experience relationship only insofar as we differentiate other from self. (p.63)

Thus, Gilligan proposes a shift in our interpretation of these differences in perception.

Building on this basic social difference, Gilligan discusses the concept of self and morality in Chapter

3. Women see morality based on relationships, the care and concern for others. To women, "[t]he moral person is one who helps others; goodness is service, meeting one's obligations and responsibilities to others, if possible without sacrificing oneself" (p. 65-66). Unfortunately, models for moral development were derived using only male subjects, so women's responses score lower. For example, in applying Kohlberg's model (in which men were used as subjects) to women, women may score "failure in development" with their responses to Heinz's dilemma of obtaining medicine for his dying spouse. However, upon closer examination, the situation may resemble fitting a round peg into a square hole: women and men see Heinz's dilemma differently. For women, the context influences the problem, and Heinz's dilemma is one of caring and responsibility to others, not simply a question of justice. Round pegs are not "failures" if the hole is square.

Gilligan's next chapter on "Crisis and Transition" explores women's moral development by analyzing interviews from the abortion decision study. Here the women are experiencing the ultimate moral dilemma: to choose either selfishness or responsibility to another, a "...conflict between self and other" (p. 70). As Piaget and Erickson agree, this type of conflict is the "...harbinger of growth" (p. 108). The women's comments provide excellent examples of changes in perspectives from selfishness to responsibility of these women in this small sample at this moment in history. Gilligan reaffirms women's need to connect: "life, however valuable in itself, can only be sustained by care in relationships" (p.127).

In Chapter 5, "Women's Rights and Women's Judgment," Gilligan discusses the moral question of responsibility and choice and how for women:

> the opposition between selfishness and responsibility complicates the issue of choice, leaving them suspended between an ideal of selflessness and the truth of their own agency and needs. (p. 138)

This tension, for example, between self-sacrifice and self-development is evident for Alison who was "[c]aught between the wish not to hurt others and the wish to be true to herself..." (p.140). As a result of the renewed consciousness of women's rights in the 1970s, the inclusion of the self as equal to the other gained footing. Where the ideal may be self-sacrifice, there is a recognition that the ethic of care applies to oneself as well. Women's moral development as the opposition of self and others eventually developed by some women in her study as a balance between responsibility to self and others.

In the last chapter, "Visions of Maturity," Gilligan concludes that there are differences in moral development between men and women. Therefore, it is inaccurate to base human development on studies conducted only with men. Much as Levinson did with THE SEASONS OF A MAN'S LIFE (1978), it is necessary to look independently at women's development in order to bring forth a theory that will encompass perspectives of both sexes. Gilligan challenges the reader with the need for further research:

> Among the most pressing items on the agenda for research on adult development is the need to delineate in women's own terms the experience of their adult life. (p.173)

The importance of Gilligan's IN A DIFFERENT VOICE to the field of adult development has been well established. As she herself states, at a time when women are seeking equality in society, "the differences between the sexes are being rediscovered in the social sciences" (p.6). These differences will serve to enhance our understanding of overall human development, and through this understanding, to improve our effectiveness with the adult learners in our classes.

An inevitable criticism of this work is the character of the samples on which Gilligan builds her premises. The samples in her studies were small and composed of groups not representative of the general population. Gilligan acknowledges this: her purpose was to encourage the development of psychological theories based on women's experiences, not to apply the results to the general population. Much as we would be amiss to find a woman morally immature by using Kohlberg's theory, we would also be incorrect to generalize to all women based on Gilligan's limited sample. Another limitation of the sample and a criticism of the study is one also directed toward the work of Kohlberg and Levinson: the study does not address cultural differences. Finally, a third criticism is that Gilligan persisted in proposing a hierarchical model of development based on similar principles to Kohlberg's premise. Perhaps women's moral development is not hierarchic; this is certainly an area for further research.

In this work, Gilligan addresses other psychologists and the lay person. She does provide explanations of the theories of adult moral development, but often not with enough clarity to let the lay reader feel comfortable. I would have understood her points better if I had a prior grasp of the theories of Freud, Piaget, Erikson, and Kohlberg, as well as some of the earlier works in the field related to the psychology of

women, for example, Jean Baker Miller's TOWARD A NEW PSYCHOLOGY OF WOMEN (1976). Nonetheless, for the adult educator, Gilligan's work is important, as it posts a STOP sign: readers should stop and examine theories of adult development, recognize these theories are based on man's life cycle (and often a small sample), and consider that women's development based on woman's life cycle may be different.

A strength of Gilligan's work is her carefully selected examples which illustrate the differences between men's and women's perspectives. The use of quotations from the interviews and the examples from literature and mythology give the reader a more detailed picture and make for more interesting reading. Her organizational style of explaining developmental theory at that time and then carefully building her case with examples from other authorities and women themselves helps the reader comprehend the significance of her findings.

The adult educator will be challenged personally after reading Gilligan's IN A DIFFERENT VOICE: PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORY AND WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT to begin to listen more carefully to comments made by women and men, to hear the similarities and differences in expression and meaning, and to try to understand these differences in human development. The study of life cycles helps to "...order and make coherent the unfolding experiences and perceptions, the changing wishes and realities of everyday life." (p. 5) For the adult educator, the study of adult development and the significance of the differences between men's and women's perceptions may translate into many levels from the choice of programs offered to the techniques used within the programs themselves. To gain an awareness of these differences one may start by reading Carol Gilligan's IN A DIFFERENT VOICE.

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NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION
Volume 6, Number 1, Spring 1992

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NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION
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EDITORS' PREFACE

In this issue of NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION, we feature one of the articles discussed on-line. The discussion on KILLING THE SPIRIT a Book Review by Terrence Redding was interesting but short-lived due to the Bangkok Project discussion on AEDNET.

This issue of NEW HORIZONS contains three articles addressing issues of importance in adult education. CUSTOMER SATISFACTION STUDIES: IMPLICATIONS FOR JOB RELATED CONTINIUNG EDUCATION by Farmer et al. describes a system developed for assessing customer satisfaction relative to job-related continuing education.

BRINGING THE PARTNERS TOGETHER IN WORKPLACE LITERACY: A CANADIAN REVIEW by Taylor et al. discusses the diverse viewpoints of business, labor and education concerning workplace literacy. The article presents practical suggestions for improving practice and increasing cooperation among the stakeholders, as well as providing a base for deepening understanding among the three constituents.

In his review of Smith's book, KILLING THE SPIRIT: HIGHER EDUCATION IN AMERICA, Terrence Redding examines the author's assertion that students today are encouraged to keep their ideas within confines of thought imposed by leaders of the academy. Redding contends that readers might accept or reject Smith's ideas and thereby be motivated to advocate their own notions of higher education.

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CUSTOMER SATISFACTION STUDIES: IMPLICATIONS FOR JOB-RELATED CONTINUING EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

Customer satisfaction studies are having considerable impact in business, industry and higher education. Approaches to customer satisfaction used in these settings are applicable, in adapted form, to a variety of organizations, including those which provide job- related continuing education. This article presents (a) a summary of the main findings from a review of relevant literature about customer satisfaction studies, (b) a description of a system, developed by the authors, for use in assessing customer satisfaction relative to job-related continuing education, and (c) sample questions for both graduates of job-related continuing education and for their supervisors.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Customer Satisfaction Studies: A Specialized Evaluation.

In a very general sense, customer satisfaction studies are a specialized form of evaluation. As such, they seek to determine the value or worth of what is being evaluated from a customer's perspective (Frost, Pierson, & Frost, 1991; West, Farmer & Wolf, 1991; Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989). Customer satisfaction studies can provide formative feedback, suggesting ways to improve what is evaluated. They can also be used summatively in determining whether or not to continue what is being evaluated and, if so, at what level of funding and effort. Values used to determine customer satisfaction may include relative values (i.e., better, same, worse) and absolute values (i.e., excellent, good, fair, poor). In customer satisfaction studies that are described in the literature, questions are typically asked regarding the extent to which customers perceive that (a) their expectations have been met; (b) their needs have been met; (c) there has been impact; and/or (d) there has been value added. None of the above is, in and of itself, sufficient in determining customer satisfaction. For instance, expectations and needs may be met, and impact may occur or value may be added; however, customers may still be unsatisfied. If so, satisfaction studies would need to help customers understand and appreciate the real value of what was provided. In another case, customers may be superficially "satisfied." Relatively weak expectations and "needs" (e.g., expressions of what they like or prefer rather than actual needs) may have been met. There can have been evidence of some sort(s) of impact. But little or no value may have actually been added. The result is likely to be some type of "customer satisfaction" which falls short of bona fide customer satisfaction. Below is a discussion of four approaches to understanding and assessing customer satisfaction which appear in the literature. These are

pertinent to understanding customer satisfaction in the setting of job-related continuing education. These approaches seek to answer questions about expectations, needs, impacts, and values which were previously cited as typical topics covered by customer satisfaction studies.

Expectation Confirmation and Disconfirmation.

From the expectation confirmation and disconfirmation perspective, customer satisfaction studies identify customer expectations in respect to a product and the confirmation or disconfirmation of those expectations in respect to the performance of that product (Oliver & DeSarbo, 1988). According to Oliver and DeSarbo, consumers form expectations of product performance prior to purchase and then compare performance levels to expectations based upon a better-than, worse-than heuristic. Drawing exclusively from the expectation confirmation and disconfirmation perspective, the Dictionary of Marketing Terms (Bennett, 1988) defines customer satisfaction as "... the degree to which there is a match between the customer's expectations of the product and the actual performance of the product" (p. 50). Oliver and DeSarbo (1988) identify three judgments which result from a comparison of customer expectations and product performance. "The judgment that results from this comparison is labeled negative disconfirmation if the product is worse than expected, positive disconfirmation if better than expected, and simple confirmation if as expected" (p. 495). Simple confirmation and positive disconfirmation imply that customer satisfaction exists. When this definition of customer satisfaction is adapted for use with job-related continuing education, the "customers" are the learners who participate in a learning activity. Their supervisors, the learners' work group, and their employing organizations are also considered customers. Thus, in respect to job-related continuing education, customer satisfaction studies from an expectation confirmation and disconfirmation perspective would seek, in part, to identify: (a) what graduates, supervisors, work groups, and employing organizations expect will result from participation in a particular learning activity; and (b) the performance of the graduates on the job, particularly aspects of that performance which they attribute to what was learned in the learning activity. If (b) equals or exceeds (a) then, from this theoretical perspective, customer satisfaction has been achieved. Customer satisfaction is determined by the degree to which the customers' expectations in terms of enhanced job performance are met and considered attributable to what was received in the jobrelated continuing education.

It is necessary in customer satisfaction studies to determine the extent to which customers' expectations have been met. However, the meeting of expectations without meeting needs, particularly if little or no value has been added, is not a firm basis for establishing a long-term and sound relationship between the provider of goods and services (including job-related continuing education) and the customers. The value of goods or services provided may exceed or otherwise be different from what was anticipated. Helping customers perceive that what was provided and its outcomes exceed or otherwise differ positively from expectations can be an important benefit of customer satisfaction studies which include a "goal-free evaluation" (Scriven, 1973) component. This can be done by taking into consideration needs, impact, and added value which are not defined or otherwise constrained by expectations.

Needs Theory.

Some approaches to studying customer satisfaction collect data about customers' needs and evidence about the extent to which customers perceive that those needs have been met. Needs can be defined in the following ways (Bradshaw, 1974; Briggs & Wager, 1981; Burton & Merrill, 1977):

Normative needs are determined by comparing the current situation and a relevant norm. Such norms can include what experts have described as "normal" or "desirable" (Farmer, Buckmaster, & LeGrand, 1988).

Expressed needs are based on statements by individuals indicating they need something and are willing to expend time and/or money to attain it.

Felt needs consist of lacks, hurts or gaps experienced by individuals who have not stated them in the form of expressed needs and/or who are unable or unwilling to put time or money into addressing such needs.

Comparative needs are identified by contrasting what has benefitted persons elsewhere with what has been provided locally. It is assumed that persons locally are in need of whatever it was that benefitted similar individuals elsewhere.

Anticipated or future needs are ones which are likely to occur or be identified at some time in the future.

Customers are likely to be satisfied to the extent that all or most of such needs have been met. There is, however, a tendency for data about needs to reflect preferences. Consequently, data are limited to expressed needs with little or no attention having been given to the more difficult-to-meet normative, felt, comparative, and anticipated needs. To correct for such potential weaknesses, some customer satisfaction studies go further than merely seeking to determine the extent to which expectations and needs have been met by collecting data about impact.

Impact Studies.

Impact studies focus on the immediate and/or longer- term outcomes (Katz & Kahn, 1978) provided by goods or services. Peterson (1979) calls evidence of immediate customer satisfaction "reaction outcomes." Impact studies seek to go beyond reaction outcomes to what Peterson (1979) refers to as "application outcomes" and "worth outcomes." Learning's effect on graduates' on- the-job performance and the impact of learning upon the employing organizations are "application outcomes" and "worth outcomes" respectively.

Customer satisfaction studies emphasizing impact tend to determine the nature and impact of training by establishing causal links (Robinson & Robinson, 1989; Ennis, 1973) between training and on-the-job performance. Both the intrinsic and extrinsic functions of the job-related continuing education are considered. Intrinsic functions are changes in knowledge, attitudes, or skills attributable to what was learned in the program or course. Extrinsic functions are effects of the education on the graduates' on-the-job performance.

Impact studies are "program assessments conducted after some predetermined time lapse following the implementation of programs" (Holt & Courtenay, 1985, p. 23). They look at the "transfer of learning" (Cormier & Hagman,1987). Rivera (1987) stated that program impact studies examine the outcomes of a program and whether or not those outcomes can be traced back to the training. One way of "tracing" outcomes back to a program is by asking graduates and their supervisors the extent to which they "totally or partially attribute" (Ennis, 1973) current performance to what was learned from a learning activity. According to Holt and Courtenay, change is different from impact (i.e., consequences). For instance, a small change may have enormous consequences or vice versa. The impact study perspective is particularly useful in helping to think through relationships between competencies, on- the-job performance, and the effects of education as well as the extent to which those effects are attributed or attributable to what was learned through job-related continuing education.

Asking questions about short-term and long-term impacts tends to be an important step in the right direction. However, some authors do not think that this is sufficient. They recommend taking the next logical step which is to ask questions about the extent to which there has been "value added."

Value Added.

The Dictionary of Marketing Terms (Bennett, 1988) defines value added in economic and marketing terms. In these terms, value added refers to the increase in value which results from the contribution made to a product's worth by a particular organization or the increase in value resulting from marketing activities. Osighew (1988) steps outside of marketing and economics and defines value added in terms of training or education. Osighew states:

> In the context of human service training programs or organizations pursuing an occupational or work-related training mission, "value-added" refers to the ability of the organization or its programs to influence its enrollees (or targets) favorably by making positive and identifiable contribution to their mental as well as personal development. (pp. 391-392)

Fitz-enz (1988) echoes Osighew's definition of value added. According to Fitz-enz:

> Trainers should begin by viewing their function as one that does more than just increase skills, impart knowledge, or foster a change in attitudes;they must prove that people use the skills, knowledge, or attitudes to upgrade their job performance. (pp. 19-20)

Osighew and Fitz-enz's definitions of value added are particularly relevant to the assessment of customer satisfaction derived from job-related continuing education.

The authors of this article believe that, when applied to job-related continuing education, the term value added can be used in two ways.

First of all, value added can be defined as the difference between someone's knowledge and abilities prior to enrolling in continuing education and what that person knows and is able to do upon graduation from the continuing education.

A = Knowledge and ability prior to continuing education.
B = Knowledge and ability upon graduation from continuing education.
B - A = Value Added

Secondly, value added can also be defined as the result of the synergistic relationship between what is learned through continuing education and the graduate's learning subsequent to completion of continuing education. The continuing education experience can do more than simply impart knowledge; it may serve as a catalyst for increased learning and enhanced ability to accomplish tasks. Further, it can enhance the graduate's ability to take a basic understanding or idea and more fully explore it at a later time. Value added can be viewed as the sum of what is learned through continuing education and subsequent learning resulting from additional reading, consultation with colleagues and supervisors, on-the-job experiential learning and additional relevant learning from other sources.

A = Knowledge and ability prior to continuing education.
B = Knowledge and ability upon graduation from continuing education
B - A = C = Change attributable to continuing education.
D = Knowledge from subsequent additional reading such as the publications from professional organizations.
E = Knowledge and abilities attained from subsequent consultation with colleagues.
F = Knowledge and abilities attained from subsequent consultation with supervisors.
G = Knowledge and abilities attained from subsequent on-the-job experiential learning.
H = Knowledge learned in meetings, conferences, seminars etc..
C + D + E + F + G + H = Overall Value Added

We recommend that the second definition of value added provided above be used in customer satisfaction studies relative to job-related continuing education. Much important learning can take place following a continuing education experience, building on what was learned in it and providing a multiplier effect. Customer satisfaction studies which ignore the multiplier effect can be seriously biased, leading the provider and the customers to conclude that the overall impact of the job-related continuing education was considerably less than it actually was.

CUSTOMER SATISFACTION: TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT (TQM)

TQM Defined

Some authors point out that the value of customer satisfaction studies lies in their key role in strategic planning and in laying the groundwork for implementing TQM programs both of which can improve the effectiveness of an organization. TQM is a management approach that focuses on product quality and customer satisfaction as tools to improve overall performance. Key principles of TQM include customer focus and fact- based decision making. From the TQM perspective, quality is mainly what the customer says it is, and the customers' perception of quality should drive the quality improvement effort (Mendelowitz, 1991). Customer opinion surveys, focus group interviews, meetings with customers, and other means are used to better understand customers' requirements and expectations. Fact-based information gathered by the above means is used to systematically measure and evaluate the quality achieved with existing business processes. Findings can be used in developing suggestions for necessary

changes (Mendelowitz, 1991).

TQM in Higher Education.

Included in the literature is reference to customer satisfaction studies being conducted as part of TQM efforts in institutions of higher education. For example, "Enhancing Quality in an Era of Resource Constraints, A Report of the Task Force on Costs in Higher Education " (Bole et al., 1990) discusses the use of customer-defined quality and TQM in institutions of higher education. The University of Michigan task force that developed that report notes that quality can be improved only by developing a deep understanding of customer needs and expectations.

CUSTOMER SATISFACTION STUDIES: ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

Informal Feedback Tools.

Customer satisfaction studies are relatively new to the field of adult and continuing education. For many years, the providers of job-related continuing education have believed that that what they offer is valuable. Informal feedback and end-of-course evaluations (sometimes pejoratively referred to as "happiness indices") from the learners have tended to reinforce that belief. Because this information reflects short-term satisfaction with the instruction and content with little or no connection between that information and its subsequent contribution to on-the- job performance, it tends to be of limited value.

Methods Approximating or Analogous to Customer Satisfaction Studies

A few efforts by adult educators (Forest & Marshall, 1977; Farmer, 1971; LeGrand, 1988) have used methods which approximate customer satisfaction studies to collect feedback about job-related continuing education six months or more after the learning activity. "Impact studies" (Forest & Marshall, 1977), a form of "outcome research" (Keller, Bigos, Heck, Rothman, & Swiontkowski, 1991), have sought to trace the effects of adult and continuing education. Farmer (1971) used randomly-assigned focus groups of 10-12 persons who were alumni of a program designed to strengthen the way adult and continuing educators teach adults. The groups discussed the program and their use of what they learned from it and recommended ways to strengthen it. LeGrand (1971) used a mailed questionnaire which addressed the relationship between the graduates' current employment, if any, their present life situation, and what they learned in the job-related continuing education activity. These efforts by Forest and Marshall (1971), Farmer (1971), and LeGrand (1988) roughly approximate customer satisfaction studies in use today. However, these studies by adult educators were completed on a one-time basis rather than on an on-going basis as part of TQM efforts.

Remarks

The authors' approach, as described later, to conducting customer satisfaction studies for use in job-related continuing education has been adapted mainly from the approaches described above and techniques currently used in business, industry, and higher education. "Lessons learned" from previous, somewhat analogous efforts and impact studies in adult and continuing education were useful in adapting those techniques for use in conducting customer satisfaction studies relative to job-related continuing education. Based on our review of the literature, we conclude that the field of job-related continuing education can benefit from the use of well-designed studies which seek to assess customer satisfaction as evinced by enhanced on-the-job performance. The approach to conducting customer satisfaction studies recommended below provides a way to do this.

CUSTOMER SATISFACTION ASSESSMENT SYSTEM: JOB-RELATED CONTINUING EDUCATION

Background

With funding provided in part by the Department of Defense, Defense Systems Management College (DSMC) in Ft. Belvoir, Virginia, the authors developed a customer satisfaction assessment system for use in job-related continuing education and managerial education. It was originally created for the DSMC and subsequently revised for for use in

job-related continuing education.

Customer satisfaction studies of job-related continuing education can best be viewed as part of an overall effort to determine the value or worth of the continuing education provided. In job-related continuing education and managerial education, it is not enough for the graduates to simply enjoy the learning activities. The graduates and their supervisors need to perceive that the learning activities lead to an enhancement of on-the-job performance.

Overview of Data Collection Techniques

The use of several data collection techniques, rather than any one of them alone, is preferable. We recommend supplementing one-on-one personal interviews with focus groups and questionnaires to better understand customer satisfaction from the perspective of continuing education graduates and their supervisors. These techniques tend to complement each other and work in a variety of ways to assess customer satisfaction.

The differential contributions of each of these techniques is described briefly. Personal interviews provide the opportunity to ask open-ended questions and to probe extensively for complete answers (Churchill, Farmer et al., - Page 13 1987). Focus groups provide the opportunity to gather an abundance of rich information by asking open-ended questions to a group of eight to twelve persons. Results from focus groups may not always be easy to interpret, but focus groups tend to provide useful information resulting from group discussion. Survey questionnaires generally do not allow extensive probing; however, questionnaires help to insure the anonymity of the respondents and allow for structured responses which may be efficiently tabulated and interpreted. Questionnaires offer a less expensive way to obtain information from a large number of people.

When used in combination, these techniques constitute a customer satisfaction assessment system.

Focus Groups

The authors see focus groups and questionnaires as playing particularly important roles in the assessment of customer satisfaction associated with job-related continuing education A focus group may serve the overall assessment system in two quite different ways, depending upon the sequence in which the focus group interviews and questionnaires are administered: 1. If focus groups are conducted prior to the use of survey questionnaires, they may function as a "pre-test" of written or oral questions. Focus group participants may be asked to respond to questions to be included on a survey and to comment on their logic, ease of understanding, or structure. Focus group participants may also generate additional questions for inclusion in survey questionnaires. 2. If focus groups follow questionnaires, the focus group may serve two purposes. First, it may provide data which have not or cannot be readily gathered through a survey questionnaire. For instance because of the limited probing allowed in a questionnaire format, the questionnaire may fail to gauge subjects' true feelings concerning a particular job-related continuing education program. Second, questionnaire responses which are unclear, problematic, or unexpected may be clarified or explained through focus group discussion.

The intent of the focus group is to provide a human dimension to balance the survey questionnaire. This sequence of focus group interviews and survey questionnaires should be repeated periodically to insure that the job-related continuing education program is going well and that timely revisions in the program may be made as necessary. Potential questions for use in a focus group in which the participants are supervisors of job-related continuing education program graduates appear in Figure 1. These questions can be paraphrased for use in focus groups in which the job-related continuing education graduates themselves are the participants.

Figure 1. Sample questions for use in focus groups: -

1. Think about a job-related continuing education graduate who was positive about the experience. What made the graduate feel this way? How were these feelings about the continuing education experience reflected in job performance?
2. What do you expect from a continuing education graduates once they return to the job? Do you expect any changes in their behavior?
3. To what extent have the continuing education graduates acquired necessary knowledge, abilities, and skills

from having attended the job-related continuing education?

4. As a supervisor, what benefits (i.e. added value), if any, do you see as a result of personnel attending the job-related continuing education program?
5. What kinds of persons are likely to benefit from attending the job-related continuing education program?
6. What kinds of persons are not likely to benefit from attending the job-related continuing education program?
7. How, if at all, were you involved in the decision for your subordinate to attend the job-related continuing education program?
8. What have you done and what can you do as supervisors to contribute to the on-going education and development of your personnel once they return from a job-related continuing education activity?

- -

The information obtained from the use of focus groups may result in a better understanding of the extent to which customers are satisfied and perceive that value has been added as a result of job-related continuing education, subsequent on-the-job learning, and additional continuing education.

Questionnaires

In addition to the use of focus groups, the authors recommend the use of mail questionnaires for collecting information from graduates and their supervisors in job-related continuing education customer satisfaction studies. Such questionnaires should include two types of questions: (a) questions about what an individual knows, is able to do, and understands; and (b) questions about what an individual needs to know, be able to do, and understand. Information gathered in response to these types of questions is key to understanding the relationship between current on-the- job performance and prior learning.

Examples of questionnaire items designed for use with the DSMC's continuing education courses are presented in Figure 2 (Farmer et al., 1991). The questions which appear in the figure are designed for continuing education graduates who answer the questionnaire with respect to a specific competency area associated with their job responsibilities. These questions can be easily adapted so that supervisors of continuing education graduates may provide feedback regarding what the graduates know, are able to do, and understand.

Figure 2. Graduate Questionnaire. -

1. How well are you able to do tasks in this competency area?
   Not at all Very well
   1 2 3 4 5
2. How well do you need to be able to do tasks in this competency area to do your job acceptably/satisfactorily?
   Not at all Very well
   1 2 3 4 5
3. How much do you know about this competency area?
   Nothing A lot
   1 2 3 4 5
4. How much do you need to know in this competency area to do your job satisfactorily?
   Nothing A lot
   1 2 3 4 5
5. How much understanding of the relevant principles underlying this competency area do you have?
   None A lot
   1 2 3 4 5
6. How much understanding of relevant principles underlying this competency area do you need to do your job acceptably/satisfactorily?
   None A lot
   1 2 3 4 5
7. Check all of the following that pertain to you and your job

___ I am able to teach this competency area to others acceptably/satisfactorily.
___ I need to improve my ability to teach this competency area to others.
___ I am able to supervise others in this competency area acceptably/satisfactorily.
___ I need to improve my ability to supervise others in this competency area.
___ I am able to evaluate others in this competency area. acceptably/satisfactorily.
___ I need to improve my ability to evaluate others in this competency area.
___ I am an expert in this competency area.
___ I need to become an expert in this competency area.
___ I have received commendation(s) or other special recognition for performance in this competency area.

The questions appearing in Figure 2 can be adapted for use in other types of job-related continuing education. If the competency areas or comparable aspects of the graduates' work are not known, these can be identified in one-on-one interviews or focus groups. Questionnaire results can be used to determine the level of customer satisfaction and pinpoint both the sources of customer satisfaction and areas that require instructional improvement.

As described here, a customer satisfaction assessment system which combines personal interviews, focus group interviews, and questionnaires is particularly useful. Figure 3 summarizes specific questions which, when addressed in one-on-one interviews, focus groups, and survey questionnaires, provide the basis for a useful customer satisfaction assessment system for job-related continuing education.

Figure 3. Questions that can be addresed in Job-Related Continuing Education Customer Satisfaction.

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1. What do continuing education graduates bring to the course in terms of prior training and experience that may have affected the appropriateness of their being in the course?
2. To what extent do the graduates learn necessary knowledge, attitudes, and skills in the job-related continuing education?
3. To what extent do graduates attain necessary competencies as a result of having attended the course?
4. To what extent do the graduates supplement what they learned in continuing education with additional on-the-job learning and/or further training?
5. To what extent are the graduates perceived as performing their jobs satisfactorily?
6. To what extent do the graduates and their supervisors attribute the adequacy of the graduates' on-the-job performance to what those graduates learned through the job-related continuing education?
7. To what extent do graduates and their supervisors attribute the adequacy of the graduates' on-the-job performance to subsequent on-the-job experiential learning?
8. To what extent do the graduates and their supervisors attribute the adequacy of the graduates' on-the-job performance to additional continuing education?

CONCLUSION

Customer satisfaction studies are being used in business, industry, and higher education to supplement other types of evaluative feedback. The authors of this article conclude that their use, in an adapted form, can benefit job-related continuing education. The customer satisfaction assessment system described in this article was designed to facilitate the collection of data from customers of job-related continuing education, utilizing one-on-one interviews, focus groups, and survey questionnaires. Sample questions are provided above for use with graduates and their supervisors. Those questions seek to determine not only the extent of customer satisfaction but also of value added. Finding out that learners are happy with the instruction and what was learned in it may provide some evidence of customers having been satisfied. Unless accompanied by evidence of enhanced on-the-job performance, however, such evidence can be taken at most as gratifying but potentially misleading feedback. In job-related continuing education, value added is not a luxury, but a necessity.

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BRINGING THE PARTNERS TOGETHER IN WORKPLACE LITERACY: A CANADIAN PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

With the growing gap between workplace demands and workforce skills, there is a need to ensure that employees with basic skills deficiencies have education and training opportunities. Much has been said about the role of partnerships as the stimulant for innovation in the workplace, however, the forging of such partnerships has been slow in coming. In an effort to learn more about the North American experience in workplace literacy, a panel discussion was held last year at an adult education conference. Practitioners from business, labour and education in both Canada and the United States provided a perspective on the current status of this evolving field. The following essay is drawn from the viewpoints of the Canadian representatives after dialogue, interaction, and discussion during the conference session. The three perspectives are diverse in terms of position and concerns but offer practical suggestions for improving practice and increasing co-operation among the stakeholders.

INTRODUCTION

Workforce literacy is a term that has been receiving considerable attention recently in North America. Sometimes referred to as the basic skills needed to function effectively in the economy, it has become a concern for human resource executives, union leaders, and education and training managers in private and public organizations. As suggested by the term, workforce literacy pertains specifically to those workers who have limited basic skills. Because of new technologies, the relaxation of world trade restrictions and the globalization of world markets, the workplace now requires a different type of labour force than in the past. As a result, this new phenemenon called the job skills gap now requires a more concerted effort by all stakeholders to decrease the mismatch between job demands and worker skills.

In response, new training strategies such as workplace literacy programs have been introduced as opportunities to learn the necessary skills required for fuller participation in work life. As with every evolving field, there are the accompanying problems. According to Johnston (1991), there are only 100 workplace literacy programs or projects across Canada. Many people who work in this field believe that this is an inadequate response to an increasing training need. Generally, these initiatives to set up basic skills training have come primarly from unions, school boards and community colleges. Although businesses are showing signs of interest in this training activity, employers seem to take initiatives only when confronted with a crisis that has revealed a lack of basic skills in their workforce.

Much has been said about the increased need for co-operation among business, labour and education as the stimulant for innovation in the workplace. However, only cursory attempts have been made to explain why such partnerships in basic skills training are dificult to operationalize. If collaboration and commitment of all members of the labour market are the cornerstones required to ensure that all workers prepare for a lifetime of learning in the workforce, then, how do we thread these workplace literacy initiatives into the fabric of the organizational culture?

In an effort to learn more about the North American experience in workplace literacy, a panel discussion was held last year at the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education conference in Montreal, Quebec. The purpose of the session entitled "Workplace Literacy-An International Dialogue" was to conduct a discussion of key issues among leading practitioners in workplace programs from both Canada and the United States. It was intended to open a dialogue on the need for and effectiveness of workplace literacy programs in North America. Three practitioners from each country representing business, labour and education provided a perspective on the current status of this evolving field. It was felt that by bringing the stakeholders together it would promote a better understanding of the different viewpoints held by each constituency and increase opportunities for further collaboration.

Canadian representatives included Linda Shohet (business), Carol MacLeod (labour) and Maurice Taylor (education). Counter-parts from the United States were Robert Bickerton, Anthony Sarmiento and Ron Pugsley. Each panel member briefly addressed two or three key points based on their field experience and in light of the presentation objectives. The 75 people attending the session were mostly from education and labour organizations. Panel members responded to their counterparts and continued the dialogue through a network of interested practitioners, thereby organizing program visits between regions and countries and to plan another session for next year's conference.

As a means of disseminating the rich exchange of information from the session, the Canadian panel members have taken the salient points of their presentation and integrated comments and reflective questions drawn from the panel interactions and group discussion into the following essay. Although the three perspectives are diverse in terms of position and concerns, threaded through each are practical suggestions for improving practice and increasing co-operation among business, labour, and education.

BUSINESS PERSPECTIVES ON WORKPLACE LITERACY

"Talkinbout" Workplace Literacy

When McArthur Foundation scholar Rexford Brown visited American and Canadian schools in the late 1980s in search of the "higher order literacy" that everybody agrees ought to be taught today to prepare students for the 21st century, he found a lot of "talkinbout." --"because we saw so many people talking about reading but not actually reading, talking about writing but not actually writing, (1991, p. 235).

Someone who set out today in search of quality workplace literacy programs in Canada would discover a similar landscape -- much "talkinbout," little action. The question is: what is impeding the business community from upgrading the basic skills of its workforce at a time when economic analysts worldwide are predicting that a high quality workforce is one of the prerequisites for businesses which expect to survive and flourish in the 21st century?

The answer is complex. It lies partly in the history of worker education in this country, partly in federal/provincial jurisdictional ambiguities surrounding education and manpower, and partly in a widespread lack of understanding of the issue in the business community. I want to concentrate on the last reason, because it is the place where we are now and the best position to move beyond "talkinbout" to action. To anchor this presentation, I have drawn on the notes from a series of focused discussion meetings held with members of the business and education communities in Montreal, Quebec.

Once a month during 1991, The Centre for Literacy of Quebec, a public literacy resource and training centre, invited a group of ten to twelve people (including CEOs, human resource managers, language trainers, school board and postsecondary administrators and adult education teachers) to talk over lunch about ways of increasing awareness of literacy as a workplace issue. The shape of the discussions was determined by the configuration of participants, but there were some recurrent questions. I believe they reflect similar concerns across Canada.

Business Sector Questions About Literacy

The most frequent question was about definition. Over and over again, business people asked: What is meant by literacy? They generally understood it as an absolute condition, that is, one is either literate or illiterate; they tended to

disbelieve that literacy could be an issue in the industrialized world and even if it were, they doubted that it was a problem in their own workplace. Most business people we met did not understand the term "basic skills" either as a description of a specific set of skills or in relation to literacy.

There were representatives from a few large companies who acknowledged that some of their employees had problems with reading, writing, speaking or computation. But most of these spokespeople talked about making entry-level testing more stringent to screen out new applicants with basic skills problems while waiting for current workers with low level skills to retire. Although some participants supported the need for sustained workforce education as part of a corporate strategy, only a few could point to a sustained commitment at their own enterprise.

Participants questioned media reports. They complained that it was hard to know whether the literacy problem was being fairly portrayed or sensationalized. Headlines scream about the "scourge of illiteracy" or about a $4-billion a year loss to Canadian business caused by illiteracy or about Canada being unable to compete internationally because of an illiterate workforce. Business people are often not able to judge the accuracy of these claims. They wanted to know where they could find accurate information and who could provide an unbiased interpretation of these data.

Participants also raised questions about responsibility. They asked why business should be responsible for literacy and basic skills when that mandate has been accorded to the schools. And even if business should accept part of the responsibility, how could any but the largest corporations provide education for its workers?

A few participants were uneasy with the rhetoric of some labour educators who link literacy and empowerment. This concern is not a specifically Canadian one. Thomas Sticht, one of the first American workplace literacy researchers, recently voiced his worry that notions of learner participation are exaggerated in relation to organizational perspectives in workplace contexts.

> You can't apply Paolo Freire's theories of the oppressed in business and industry. You can't say you're oppressing your workers and I'm here to empower them to overthrow your dictatorial management styles. It won't work. (BCEL, January 1992, p. 7)

Finally, those business people who do recognize the problem and prepared to assume some responsibility asked repeatedly where they could turn for guidance. How could they differentiate among the immense and increasing number of learning packages being marketed with the promise to upgrade workers' skills using the latest technology in the fastest time possible?

A Consumer's Guide to Workplace Literacy

When asked what would help them clarify the issue of literacy in the workplace, business people almost unanimously said they needed clear, concise information. They all said they work under intense pressure and do not have time to read extensive research studies and reports. And they need a framework for deciding whether they have a literacy problem, whether they ought to be doing something about it, and whether the commercial upgrading programs that are being offered to them are well-desinged or effective.

The idea of protecting consumers against defective goods has been firmly established in North America in the past thirty years. Now, ironically, the corporate sector itself seems to be in need of some protection as it becomes the uninformed "consumer" of educational services required for its own survival. This is especially apparent in regard to literacy.

ABC Canada, the private sector Canadian literacy foundation, has taken a first step in providing some direction with the publication in late 1991 of WORKPLACE LITERACY, AN INTRODUCTORY GUIDE FOR EMPLOYERS. This extraordinary guide asks a series of questions and answers them drawing on the best that is currently known. The first question sets the tone:

Q: What kind of commitment must I make to improve literacy in my workplace?
A: Literacy in the workplace requires a long-term commitment; there is no quick fix. Literacy skills upgrading should be built into your company's strategic plan. Literacy is not an add on ---it must be tied into existing priorities. (p. 2)

The guide is philosophically coherent but never prescriptive. It does not recommend specific programs or methods, but does offer general principles. For example, "Successful programs are those that consider both organizational and workers' needs." (p. 5) (Thomas Sticht can rest assured.) On needs assessment, the recommendation is that you first determine how literacy fits into existing organizational and training objectives with individual assessments coming much later after employees have agreed to participate.

What next?

The next publication needed is a similar set of simplified guidelines for evaluating learning materials or programs, by answering questions such as "What do we know about reading? about writing? about second-language acquisition?" A quick checklist could tip off a prospective buyer about "literacy gain" claims too good to be true, and protect both employer and worker.

The problem is one of changing a culture. Without a learning culture in the Canadian workplace, literacy has no natural place on a continuum of workforce education. But there are forces of resistance. Recent suverys have revealed that, because the recession has created a pool of skilled labour, most Canadian businesses have not yet experienced any shortage of workers with basic skills. Even though economic forecasters insist that the shortage will be upon us by mid-decade and that long-term planning is required to forestall a crisis, the same recession mentality works against long-term thinking; survival is the issue for many businesses. Since a commitment to education has never been part of the Canadian business ethos, this is a difficult time to sell the idea.

There is also a danger that, overwhelmed by the immensity of taking on what appears to be an impossible mission, many businesses will either ignore or dismiss the entire issue. Apart from the ABC Canada effort, literacy has not been defined often enough in the media or in public forums in terms that make sense to the business community.

The challenge is to convince the business community that literacy belongs on a continuum of workforce education as an investment in survival. As a beginning, ABC Canada should circulate a copy of the Employer's Guide to as many Canadian businesses as possible; local literacy centres should create ongoing opportunities for discussion between education and business such as the ones offered in Montreal by The Centre for Literacy; and effective Canadian workplace models should be regularly publicized and shared among trainers.

A LABOUR PERSPECTIVE ON BASIC SKILLS

As an emerging issue, literacy has begun to marshal momentum and harness resources. It is critical that those championing the issue devote time and attention to developing a paradigm that reflects the values and philosophical underpinnings of their approach. To do so presupposes that serious consideration has been given to a range of key questions. To not do so presupposes that your educational strategies are influenced by forces shaped by others. The litmus test of whether or not sufficient thought has been given to context deals with reconciling the tension between the social and economic perspectives of literacy. Do you view literacy as a social issue? Do you view literacy as an economic issue? Do you view literacy as a hybrid of the two perspectives?

A labour perspective on basic skills is rooted in the context of the workplace and the advocacy role that unions hold as guardians of workers' rights. It offers a paradigm that is based on the principles of empowerment and may prove to be useful as a stimulus for those interested in clarifying their own vision.

Unions' Stake in Education and Literacy

Unions have a proud tradition of excellence in education and training. For example, the building and construction

trades unions - via apprenticeship programs - are vanguards of learning opportunities. Basic skills upgrading is seen as an expansion of this tradition by providing the foundation for life-long learning. There is a growing awareness among labour leaders that an educational strategy is key to labour's response to changing labour market patterns. Momentum for this opinion is abetted by the fact that 75% of the next decade's workforce is already out of school (Sarmiento & Kay, 1990). For many of these adults, returning to the traditional school system is not an option; therefore, the workplace becomes an important focal point for training.

The challenges facing Canada and the United States, in terms of a global market, are staggering. Business has at least two ways to compete in the new economy: (a) to deskill jobs and cut costs, such as wages and benefits or, (b) take a long-term view and make the worker central to the organization's business plan. Education and training, including basic skills upgrading, becomes critical to the high-skill strategy.

The labour movement has an interest in promoting a highly-skilled workforce as a means of attracting and maintaining jobs in Canada; however, the human contract between unions and their members is paramount. One of the contributions that the labour movement continues to make, in the public discussion on literacy and adult education, is to consistently reinforce that the implications of literacy go far beyond productivity and economic growth.

A vision of a just society positions literacy as a social issue that is linked to long-standing union goals. The labour movement is interested, not only in a skilled workforce, but an informed citizenry. A progressive nation is one in which its people are able to fully participate in their communities and draw on their potential to build a better life for their families. Quality-of-life issues cannot be divorced from any perspective on literacy as these issues reflect some of the human aspirations that we all share.

To reinforce these key points, the Canadian Federation of Labour (1991) chose LITERACY FOR WORKERS over Workplace Literacy as its project name. The former positions the union as an advocate and recognizes that people operate in many spheres including family, community and workplaces. An economically-driven perspective of literacy is much more limiting. Labour is concerned about the potential negative consequences associated with a perspective that features a singular focus on maximizing human potential only as it correlates to maximizing profit potential.

Literacy in the Modern Workplace

In today's workplace, literacy means far more than the three Rs. It includes many different kinds of skills such as problem-solving, communications, and English or French as a second language. Integral to an understanding of workplace literacy is an awareness that literacy standards increase as society becomes more complicated.

How does this translate to a workplace context? In many instances, technology has changed so dramatically that previously acceptable standards of literacy are now too low. The crane industry yields an illustration. Modern cranes carry on-board computers and operators now require higher-level math in order to calculate load charts as opposed to relying on the "feel" of the machine. Additionally, there is more work-related reading required now than at any other point in time. The introduction of Workplace Hazardous Materials Information System (WHMIS) legislation contributes to this increase. Everyone is required to read and interpret Material Safety Data Sheets as a preventative health and safety measure.

How do statistics translate to a workplace context? Statistics can be an extremely useful tool; however, they are also subject to abuse. Special efforts must be made to ensure that the statistics related to a literacy profile of Canadian adults are interpreted accurately. One of the most common errors made in attempting to grapple with the scope of literacy issues, is to extrapolate national statistics to specific workplaces. This practice is dangerous - as well as invalid. It cannot be assumed that since 16% of Canada's adults have limited reading skills then 320 out of a workforce of 2000 have limited reading skills (Statistics Canada, 1990).

Each workplace is unique and is characterized by a particular mix of situational factors. Following that line of logic, there is no one literacy program model that will be appropriate to every situation. A single factor, such as whether the labour-management relationship is collaborative or adversarial, may influence the type of model selected. An approach

that is successful in an office setting in downtown Toronto may not work at all in a manufacturing plant in Brandon, Manitoba. Developing a literacy program for workers requires an active search for a model that is sensitive to specific needs and circumstances.

A Balanced Perspective

International Literacy Year helped elevate literacy to a high-profile national interest. Emerging from that positive framework is a concern that the true dynamics of the issue - particularly as is related to the workplace - are misunderstood by many. Many people have the impression that a shockingly large percentage of the workforce sign their name with an X and can't add two plus two. Even worse is the impression that critical thinking skills, among those who have difficulty reading or writing, are marred. These, and similar myths, act as barriers to those who wish to improve their basic skills.

A balanced viewpoint recognizes that the skills of workers are one of many factors that affect economic growth. Equally pertinent components include business investment in new equipment, work processes (i.e. the way work is structured and jobs are designed), fiscal policy, and the amount of money allocated to training. The promotion of a balanced perspective on literacy in Canadian society is in everyone's best interests.

The labour movement inherently understands that some people can read the world far better than those who can read the word. The literacy profile of Canadian adults suggests that opportunities to build on this understanding must be created. Where possible, forging partnerships on the basis of mutual interests is a workable plan of action, provided that the union is an equal partner from the outset. Labour and management have vital interests that often allow them to jointly plan for change in the workplace. The challenge of the 21st Century is to excel in the development of Canada's human resources. This vision requires a strong public and private commitment to education and training. The power to grow and thrive in the midst of change is a basic concern of each and every Canadian.

AN EDUCATION PERSPECTIVE ON BASIC SKILLS TRAINING

Lessons to be Learned

With many provincial governments developing policy, sound incentive grant criteria and the identification of standards of good practice in workplace literacy, important lessons can be learned from these modest beginnings. As suggested by Johnston (1991) and Taylor, Lewe and Draper (1991), many organizations have been successful in bridging education and training with a new emphasis on basic skills training. Perhaps by examining some of these early experiences, we will be better positioned to ask questions that will help advance effective programming.

Most literacy educators in this field would agree that workplace literacy requires a knowledge of the world of work and an understanding of how basic skills instruction relates to the unique characteristics of the workplace. Many such educators with which I have talked, working in programs in existence for the last couple of years, feel these two characteristics are vital ingredients for the planning of any such intitiative. As well, drawing from their successes and failures, there also seems to be a common set of principles or requirements for developing and implementing a workplace basic training program. (Draper & Taylor, 1991).

Getting to Know the Structure of the Organization

For practitioners who have already determined a readiness in the business community to initiate a workplace literacy intervention, the first important requirement involves knowing the structure of the organization which will be collaborating in the program. It is essential to become aware of the chain of command, the role of unions, the commitment of the organization to employees, the overall goals of the organization and whether or not there are internal or external conflicts within the company. All of this foundational information provides an awareness of the organizational process which is at the heart of any basic skills training program. Needless to say, this organizational process is unique to each workplace. In some of the larger and medium-sized companies, organizing structures such as Equal Employment Opportunities Committees or Reclassification and Manpower Adaptability Committees supported

the overall development of the initiative. In smaller companies, one often finds a less formal group usually consisting of the owner and front-line supervisor, providing the thrust and direction for the literacy training. As a rule of thumb, getting to know the organizational process and identifying support and potential barriers seems to be a fundamental requirement for the development of a workplace literacy intervention.

Conducting a Situational Analysis

A second requirement for developing a workplace program is commitment to conduct a situational analysis. This type of analysis entails an examination of the perceived needs of an organization to determine whether the problems have educational solutions and whether the educational solutions have a literacy component. In some of the existing programs, both the company and committee structures determined that before introducing a new technology, a pre-training component was required which included basic skills in literacy and numeracy. In other programs, based on a needs assessment of middle managers, union representatives and previous unsuccessful experiences, ESL and literacy training were integrated. What seems to be common in many of these initiatives is that, for each workplace, a different type of situational analysis is required. However, the information from this examination of the organization provides a clearly marked roadmap for guiding the program development. In other words, by conducting a needs assessment both the climate and resources of the organization become apparent. Negotiation Thirdly, any effective workplace intervention involves negotiation and a contract with the organization to provide the literacy services.

Deciding on who the partners are, the services to be offered, the content of the program, participation details, program structure and schedule, resource commitment, assessment strategy, and evaluation procedures are all important components of a program that require some type of contractual agreement. After such an agreement to proceed has been made, the actual program planning can begin. As part of the planning strategy, it is important to develop a program that meets the need of the organization and at the same time is perceived by participants to be worthwhile. By soliciting input from management, labour, trainers and workers, as was the case in many of the existing programs, an agenda for partnership building can be initiated at this early stage and further developed throughout the intervention.

Effective Program Evaluation

A fourth requirement in developing and implementing basic skills training is the continuous, circular process of an effective program evaluation. This exercise should not end program planning but rather be an integral part of it. Measuring the effectiveness of a workplace literacy program should involve thinking through some of the following steps: What are the goals of the program? What objectives will be set to reach those program goals? What testing procedures or assessment techniques will be used? What is the time line of these goals? Who will be involved with the evaluation and how will the results of the evaluation be used? And how has the program affected the training policies or workplace orgnization? Underlying each of these questions is the increasing awareness that confirming evidence such as demonstrated improvements in performing job-related literacy tasks or program impacts may be more useful than the self-reports of those involved. Although this is a new area of literacy evaluation, some program designs are beginning to indicate the relationship between literacy abilities and productivity, and specifically how the program intends to identify the expected outcomes.

While there is no one formula or prescription for successfully implementing a basic skills training program across the varied occupational sectors, there now appears to be some markers on the roadmap. These efforts should be applauded because they help orient and point directions for the next part of the journey. Given the evolving nature of the field, however, it is our challenge to find as many routes as possible to end up at the same destination.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

Deepening the Dialogue and Increasing Action

Any discussion on a topic such as workforce literacy with members from business, labour and education engenders an opportunity for a deeper understanding of what is working and what could work better. Such is the case in this account. Embedded in each position or viewpoint are the

questions that now require answers. First, if the business community needs to be convinced that workplace literacy is an investment in survival, then what specific types of concise and factual information are needed? Second, if literacy programs are to empower workers, then what are the impacts on the workplace structure? Third, even if there has been only a small degree of success in delivering workplace literacy programs, how do we speak about this so that others may see themselves in the experience? Although some pioneering efforts are being made by business, labour and education to move workplace literacy from the shelf to the floor, the fact that there are no quick solutions suggests that the time is ripe for innovation.

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BOOK REVIEW

by
Terrence R. Redding

Smith, Page (1990). KILLING THE SPIRIT: HIGHER EDUCATION IN AMERICA. New York, NY: Viking Penguin Books.

KILLING THE SPIRIT asserts that tradition and the academy's resistance to change create an educational environment in which the mind is not liberated but systematically confined and forced to sameness of thought. This well-written 305 page book powerfully develops this thesis with historical examples from Page Smith's personal experiences. Smith cites two major taboos that can lead to student academic failure and a no-vote of confidence for extending a young scholar's work. First is failure to stay within the confines imposed by the leaders of the academy, and second trying to

introduce new thought, or even a fresh philosophy of thought.

Some readers will view Smith's potrayal of the academy through his personal experience as limiting; others will see it as adding credibility and a richness that can only be present in the writings of one who has lived it. This book requires its readers to accept or reject Smith's ideas. In either case, readers will be motivated to champion their notion of higher education. For continuing adult educators and members of the academy committed to continuing higher education, KILLING THE SPIRIT is a caution against adopting too narrow a point of view, and being too quick to move toward the mainstream of American higher education. For the members of the academy who view themselves as safely near the middle of their discipline, the book pleads that they take a critical look and evaluate whether they collectively stifle new bright minds and drive new entrants to conformity.

Using a compelling literary style, Smith portrays events in their historical context. The reader is, therefore, able to understand the event, some of its causes, and eventual effects. The introduction is especially appealing because, from its overview of the book, the reader cannot only anticipate the tone of the remainder of the book but more importantly understand the author's motive for writing it.

In his first chapter, "Mapping the Desert," Smith explores the current situation found on college and university (which he calls the academy) campuses. A key ingredient to his position, that the academy is approaching moral bankruptcy, is illustrated by his examples of academic fundamentalism. Smith suggests that at the heart of academic fundamentalism is the notion that religion in any context has no place in science and research. In one example, Gothic architecture is taught by a professor with no mention made of underlying religious passions that fueled its creation. A second example refers to a work on Populism, a native American political movement, but fails to mention evangelical Protestantism out of which Populism rose. Smith queried the author of the work on Populism, about the omission, and found that the author thought omitting religion was being more "scientific" (p.96). These and other examples of excessive emphasis on "science" at the expense of teaching leave the reader questioning how American higher education ever reached such a sad situation.

Smith believes that most members of academe perceive themselves as liberal, not inclined to be materialistic or competitive and vaguely "socialistic" (p.146). Smith, observing their actual behavior, portrays them as highly competitive and ambitious. They compete at every level, first for grades, then admission to prestigious institutions for graduate study, and finally with one another for tenure. Rather than being liberated, Smith thinks that, "He/she thus guards that investment of time jealously, fends off intruders, and does his/her best to improve the return on his/her investment through the various career strategies that we are familiar with" (p. 190). This boils down to intentionally or unintentionally opposing anything that might undermine academic standing through the introduction of new thought and rejecting notions that could challenge longly held beliefs and positions.

The author's writing style is at its best when he discusses historical aspects of education. His outline of the American educational system and its beginnings is the clearest, most concise writing I have seen on this topic. While providing a sense of the times in which important decisions were being made, he quickly moves the reader through the history of the American college and university. His introduction to American higher education begins with the Protestant Reformation and the roots of its traditions of learning with "The Seven Liberal Arts," established in the medieval university.

From that point, he describes the founding of early American colleges in the colonies and the effect that religious and political ideas had on their formation. Of particular interest, was the description of the educational positions taken by the founding fathers. Most readers will be familiar with Jefferson and Franklin's educational ideas, but they may not have been fully exposed to the practical concepts of Noah Webster. Many reading this book will appreciate that we can know very little of "who" we are if we fail to learn "why" we are. Smith provides the "why" about American higher education.

After laying the foundation in his chapter "The Beginning," he continues with the history of American higher education in a chapter entitled, "The New Republic." He explores the practical education versus classical education debate as well as the rapid spread of new denominational colleges to the west, fueled by graduates from such institutions as Yale.

He discusses the problems associated with high graduate drop-out rates. Smith attributes the relatively high literacy rate in early America and the ready availability of colleges to the efforts of the various Christian denominations, noting however, that quality became an issue. The United States came to have too many institutions and little standardization in evaluating curriculum or content. Quality higher education and the pursuit of knowledge, became associated with the new universities in Germany and older colleges associated with Europe.

After clearly establishing this historical background, Smith walks the reader through the formation of universities in the United States and the difficulties associated with that effort. Discussing the establishment of graduate programs in America and the point that it was not an overnight or automatic success, he takes time to describe the social and political scene to maintain the historical context. Hardly a paragraph goes by without the reader being exposed to a concept or idea interwoven with the history of its time. Tying this effort to the formation of the Land Grant Institutions, he completes our understanding of how American higher education reached its current state.

To defend his position he includes numerous citations to support his argument. Smith attacks a number of the academy's valued institutions. As soon as Smith begins to discuss recent educational history KILLING THE SPIRIT becomes more detailed, even tedious to read.

Smith brings the reader to understand the historical relevance of how the Ph. D. and tenure system came to exist, the importance placed on higher education by society and the emergence of research and research dollars as a compelling force that continues to shape higher education today. Smith summarizes his concept of the value of the Ph. D. with these words: "There seems little doubt from the perspective of the present day that the introduction of the Ph. D. as the so-called union card of the profession was, if not a disaster, an unfortunate and retrograde step" (p. 108). Citing William James, Smith selected these words and phrases to describe the Ph. D. as "the Mandrian disease", a "'Teutonic' invention, completely foreign to American ways". He balances his citations with examples of the inappropriate value placed on the Ph. D. and with its granting institution and argues that the length of time it takes to achieve a Ph. D. in some disciplines is determined more by the discipline's desire to be taken seriously than a real need for arduous preparation. He describes the process as containing unnecessary impediments. Citing his own unnecessary learning of multiple foreign languages he reports:

> Indeed, three or four years after I had displayed my "mastery" of German, I couldn't translate a page of German history text, and would bet a bundle that the same would be true for the vast majority of my fellow "Americanists," as we are generically referred to. One might ask why reason or humanity didn't prevail and allow such meaningless (and time-consuming) requirements to be dropped. Well, primarily because it had no rational basis to begin with; ... (p. 110).

Of more importance than unnecessary impediments to Smith is the transition from humanities grounded in logical positivism to humanities based on analytic philosophy. This transition, according to Smith, reduces the humanities until nothing of real value is left. Recent educational history is a personal history for Smith. It is clear that the distance of time, and its ability to provide natural insulation between a historian and the human events of which he writes, has not eased the burden for Smith when explaining these more recent topics. His presentation of recent educational history reflects his personal involvement and is opinionated, but, straightforward.

The five longest chapters in the book are "The Revolt of the Youth," "Publish or Perish," "Teaching," "The Social Nonscience," and "The Inhuman Humanities," These chapters lay out the faults of American higher education and the cause of dissatisfaction. Central to the notion of a student revolt was the idea that universities lacked "soul" and were preoccupied with piling up vast amounts of incomprehensible facts without being concerned about "eternal truths." The terminology and goals of a nation concerned with the war in Vietnam and the expansion of capitalism were thrown back in the faces of educators by dissatisfied students.

Smith portrays young academics as prostituting their scholarly pursuits in an effort to gain academic recognition and tenure at the expense of good teaching. Teaching is supposed to benefit from research, but Smith believes it does not, leading the academy instead to virtually ignore the accomplishments of teachers. The result is that successful new academics are often the least original and most likely to be conformists. Smith makes explicit his views with these words:

> The first fact to be established is that there is no direct relationship between research and teaching. The notion that research enhances teaching, although thoroughly discredited by experience and research, is one that lingers on and is often trotted out by the ill-informed as a justification for the publish-or-perish policy.

Teaching should be founded in student needs, a concept central to Smith's essay on teaching. He abhors the dull lecture or the the dispirited graduation exercise: instead he applauds the the emotional presentation of a thought, ideal, or series of facts that strikes a resonant emotional cord in the listeners. He encourages the notion of "festival" as one of the oldest forms of human expression and joy. Each of these chapters contain sufficient content to justify their treatment as separate books.

Smith closes KILLING THE SPIRIT by denouncing efforts to make social sciences into true sciences, noting strongly and repeatedly that much of the usefulness of the social sciences has been removed as they align themselves with social causes while avioding political causes and ignoring the impact of religion on humanity. To state that knowledge is to be used and that it does not mature into wisdom in and of itself, he quotes Sir Walter Moberly:

> "If you want a bomb the chemistry department will teach you how to make it, if you want a cathedral the department of architecture will teach you how to build it, if you want a healthy body the department of physiology and medicine will teach you how to tend it. But when you ask whether and why you should want bombs or cathedrals or healthy bodies, the university .. .. .. must be content to be dumb and impotent. It can give help and guidance in all things subsidiary but not in the attainment of the one thing needful. In living their lives the young are left 'the sport of every random gust.' But for the educator this is abdication .. .. .. We have paid the tithe or mint and anise and cummin, and have omitted the weightier matters of the law, judgement, mercy and faith (p. 295-296)."

In his closing chapter "Reviving the Spirit," Smith tells the reader that those things which have been disregarded in building modern American university must be regained: that science needs religion, that the teaching become more important to institutions of learning than research, that the complexity of institutions be simplified. Schools must be down sized for students to find a place in more, but smaller, campuses. With the example of the California system, and his own institution at Santa Cruz, he demonstrates how such down sizing could take place.

KILLING THE SPIRIT argues forcefully for change. However, Page Smith's argument for change would be strengthened if he provided citations of others in the academy who were also calling for change. It is an excellent book for any academic's "must read" list.

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NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION, seeks manuscripts for its 1993 issues. The editors solicit submissions of original research, conceptual analyses, case studies, and book reviews relating to adult education efforts.

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NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION
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EDITOR'S PREFACE

This issue of NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION contains four articles on very diverse topics. Eric Friedrich's article, RADICAL ADULT EDUCATION WITH OLDER PERSONS suggests using Paolo Friere's methods to empower older adults. It includes a literature review, addresses issues relative to self-directed learning for older adults suggests reasons for using a Freirian approach with older adults in congregate settings.

THEORY-BASED PRACTICE: A MODEL SDLS PROGRAM by John L. Lewis and Barbara K. Mullins describes the Adult Education Colloquium (AEC) at Florida State University. Using it as a model program, the authors, who are

graduates of the program, discuss the importance of Student-Directed Learning Structures (SDLS) in graduate adult education programs. They propose that an SDLS integrates theory and practice to achieve goals critical to developing professional adult educators.

In THE NEED FOR CONTINUING EDUCATION FOR THE DEAF: ARE ADULT EDUCATORS LISTENING? Kimberly A. Townsend addresses the need for improved educational programs for deaf adults. She includes an historical perspective of the philosophy and methodology for educating the deaf and makes recommendations for adult educators seeking to improve educational instruction and programming for deaf adult learners.

Tania Das Gupta, in TOWARDS AN ANTI-RACIST, FEMINIST TEACHING METHOD, reviews literature on feminist and anti-racist teaching, identifying its main elements and their implications for curriculum and classroom dynamics. She also includes suggestions for its implementation into curriculum and foe creation of an institutional climate conducive to anti-racist and feminist education.

This is the last issue of NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION emanating from Syracuse University. The next publication will come from Nova University in Ft. Lauderdale, the new home of NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION.

NEW HORIZONS IN ADULT EDUCATION
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RADICAL ADULT EDUCATION WITH OLDER PERSONS

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Paulo Freire, a proponent of radical adult education, proposed a theory to liberate oppressed persons through education. Growing up in Brazil, Freire was greatly influenced by that country's Acao Popular Movement, a movement which began in the early 1960s. According to the tenets of the Acao Popular Movement, consciousness is raised when individuals critically examine the world in order to facilitate some sort of change. Such change is known as humanization. The end product of the process is the creation of a utopian society (Jarvis, 1987). Freire's theory is based on this approach to the change process.

This paper argues for using Freire's method with a new

group of people who might fall into an oppressed population designation: the older adult learner. Freire's approach may be a particularly efficient type of self-directed learning for older adults because they face numerous developmental challenges within their socio-cultural contexts. A review of current literature on the education of older adults and a brief review of Freire's theory precedes the argument.

Literature on Older Adult Education and Learning

Existing literature concerning the education of older adults suggests that few older adults take part in the formal educational programs currently being offered. Only four to nine percent of people over age 55 participate in formal educational programs (Wasserman, 1976; National Center for Education Statistics, 1980). Barriers which might prevent participation by older adults in such programs include: lack of transportation, health problems, insecurity in a learning environment, and institutional barriers including location and scheduling of courses (Peterson, 1981).

Even though there is a low participation rate in formal educational programs by older adults, Hiemstra (1976) found that the average older adult spends 325 hours per year on learning projects, on approximately 3.3 learning projects per year. The majority of the learning for these projects was self-directed, independent learning, indicating older adults prefer to take personal responsibility for their learning whenever possible (Hiemstra, 1976). In an earlier study, Tough (1971) found an even greater participation rate for adults: 816 hours on 8.3 projects per year. Tough's population, however, was younger than the average age of 68 in Hiemstra's study.

Interestingly, there seems to be a relationship between self-directed learning and life satisfaction. Brockett (1987) found a link between life satisfaction and self-directed learning in five of the eight factors of the Life Satisfaction in the Elderly Scale (LSES) (Salamon & Conte, 1981). There is a significantly positive relationship between perceived life satisfaction and one's views of having the skills and attitudes needed in self-directed learning (Brockett, 1987). This relationship suggests that a person who is satisfied with life is also likely to be self-directed. The converse also true.

Unfortunately, many older learners are neither able nor ready to be self-directed at all times. Ripple and Janquish (1981) found that "self-esteem appears to be a

key variable in implementing educational interventions with older adults, and success of such interventions depends on supporting it, capitalizing on it, and building on it" (p. 9).

Brockett (1987) concluded that adult education can promote self-directed learning opportunities to increase independence and life satisfaction in older adults, and Hiemstra (1976) found that older adults prefer to take personal responsibility for their learning whenever possible. Given these studies, it would seem that Friere's self-directed learning approach may be a useful teaching method for this population. His approach could be used to deal with the self-esteem and self-confidence problems facing older adults as well as socio-cultural issues and oppressive situations in general which are encountered by many older adults.

Freire's Theory of Adult Education

Freire's theory of adult education, originally developed to liberate oppressed persons in his native Brazil, offers a viable approach for older learners. Freire (1982) opposes the banking concept of education in which the student is merely a passive receptacle of information. In the banking concept, the authoritarian teacher (oppressor) describes what the student (the oppressed) should know; the teacher controls the knowledge, and, to an extent, the perception of reality which is presented to the student. This approach to education shuts the student away from an exchange of ideas. It allows for no discussion or critical analysis. The teacher has all the power, while the student has none. The students absorb information like mindless tape recording machines. Consequently, the process is advantageous to the oppressors who create unquestioning individuals to fit into their world without ever challenging that world.

The alternative to the banking method is problem-posing education. The teacher not only teaches, but also learns from students as both sides engage in dialogue. Students and teachers function on an equal level and learn from each other, a process which involves cognition, not just the transfer of information. In this method, there may be teacher/student contradiction and, whatever the disagreement, it must be resolved. The teacher not only teaches, but learns from students as they all engage in dialogue. Students and teachers are placed on an equal level, and learn from each other. The students are no longer passive receptacles, but now actively engage in dialogue, critically analyzing information and ideas.

Students develop the skills to perceive, in critical fashion, how they exist in the world. The heightened awareness or consciousness of students, then, enables them to transform their world through a process which Freire terms as "conscientization." Individuals become "knowing subjects" cognizant of both their socio-cultural of their capacity to change that reality (Freire, 1982). While the banking method attempts to repress consciousness, problem-posing attempts to raise it and create a critical intervention in reality. Most people live their lives with blinders on, never really questioning their day-to-day existence. Freire challenges the individual to become aware of his or her consciousness. Unlike animals who are merely conscious, people can reflect upon their consciousness, and alter their situation in life.

For Freire, education functions in one of two ways. It can transmit information to the younger generation and indoctrinate them into the given culture; or it can promote the "practice of freedom" in which individuals critically examine their own reality and change it to better their situation (Boston, 1972). When applying Freire's teachings and methods, North American educators should realize that he developed these techniques for his own culture within a Third World country. Consequently, they can not rigidly apply his methods, but must adapt them to their own cultures and learn from their own struggles. Certainly, education for older adults is one area where North American culture can learn from Freire's principles. Some of his ideas could prove to be beneficial in working with the elderly who, generally, tend to be an oppressed group (Hooyman & Kiyak, 1988).

It is estimated that by the year 2000, over 15% of the population will be 65 or older. Although elderly persons are highly regarded in some countries, in the United States and other industrialized nations, they often suffer a loss of status, a reduced number of personal contacts, and a lowered income, largely because our culture tends to fear the aging process and view it negatively.

Robert Butler, former director of the National Institute on Aging, coined the term "ageism" to describe stereotypes and prejudiced attitudes about old age (Butler, 1975). As with other types of prejudice such as sexism and racism, ageism attributes certain characteristics to all members of a group because of one characteristic they hold in common (in this case old age). Studies examining a variety of cultural influences, including children's and adolescents'

literature (Blue, 1978; Peterson and Karnes, 1976), contemporary fiction and poetry (Sohngen, 1977; Sohngen and Smith, 1978), and popular jokes (Davis, 1977; Richman, 1977) revealed negative stereotypes of elderly persons. In addition, a study by Rodin and Langer (1980) showed that negative labeling and stigmatization of the aged may contribute to behavior which actually confirms negative stereotypes of aging and leads to lowered self-esteem and redued feelings of control. Because stereotypes and social labels are basically summaries of cultural expectations, these expectations may be assumed to affect all the members of the culture, including those who are labeled. Ageism may lead to discriminatory behavior against older adults. For example, the existence of mandatory retirement which is an obvious form of societal discrimination based solely on age (Hooyman & Kiyak, 1988).

Discrimination occurs in other ways, as well as creating barriers to employment. Age discrimination is the fastest growing form of unfair dismissal litigation (Hooyman & Kiyak, 1988). In a 1981 survey of 552 employers, 20% stated that employees over the age of 50 have fewer opportunities for promotion or training, and 12% said that pay raises are not as large for older employees as for younger ones (Mercer, 1981).

Given the oppressive situations in which many elderly individuals find themselves, Freire's (1982) idea of education involving critical dialogue to create a heightened awareness of the socio-cultural reality could prove to be extremely important. It is imperative that a teacher refrain from teaching only what he or she thinks is important for the elderly person to know because that teaching may be biased by negative cultural stereotypes. Rather, the teacher and student should participate in dialogue which fosters critical analyses of important issues and questions, heightening the awareness of participants who may then transform their reality. The teacher-student will find no better group from whom to learn than the elderly, who have experienced much in their lifetimes.

Freire's approach can also benefit elderly persons by providing them with a sense of control in their lives. Most elderly persons feel a loss of control once their jobs are gone, their finances are lowered, or their adult children take over some of their responsibilities. The institutionalized elderly, in particular, have few opportunities to exercise control in their lives, despite the fact that feeling in control of one's life is crucial to good mental health (Goleman, 1986; Seligman, 1975). Nursing home residents live in "decision free" environments and are

led to believe they no longer control their own lives (Langer and Rodin, 1976).

Freire's method of teaching, in which the teacher does not take control, but rather allows free dialogue and critical analysis, could give elderly individuals a sense of control. They could be part of the decision-making process, free to provide their valuable, experienced input. Teacher and student would be on an equal level, allowing the older individual to achieve a higher sense of self-esteem.

Another aspect of Freire's theory may apply to elderly persons who are experiencing role loss. As people grow older, their roles in life may become more ambiguous. Guidelines about the requirements of roles such as nurturing parent, boss, etc., are no longer clear to either to themselves or others (Rosow, 1985). Burgess (1960), finds the retired person "roleless." There are no clear societal rules to guide post-retirement behavior. This could be a period for greater authenticity, a chance for such individuals to create their own meaning apart from the rules of society. Freire challenges learners to create knowledge and meaning as a result of a constant problematizing of their existential situation (Freire, 1982). Certainly the "roleless" elderly person could benefit from this approach.

Yet another way that Freire's theory may apply to the elderly person is the notion that humans are unfinished beings; they are in the process of becoming. This unfinished character of humans, along with the changing character of reality, requires that education be an ongoing activity. Therefore, people have not finished their education when they reach old age; rather it is a lifelong process.

CONCLUSION

Older learners prefer to take personal responsibility for their learning, and participate in self-directed learning projects to a greater extent than formal learning experiences. This selfdirected type of learning appears to be related to life satisfaction and independence in older adults. Because older adults face numerous developmental challenges and potentially oppressive situations, a self-directed approach such as Friere's, which helps individuals examine how they exist in society and make desired changes, may be very well-suited for use with such a population.

Freire's approach may be appropriate in settings for congregate living such as retirement communities or

nursing homes. As cited, the institutionalized elderly, in particular, have fewer opportunities to exercise control in their lives, in spite of the importance of a sense of control (Goleman, 1986; Seligman, 1975). Freire's self-directed approach may lead to a greater sense of control for participants and increase life satisfaction in participants as suggested by Brockett's (1987) study. Many of the barriers to participating in formal educational programs could be overcome by taking the class to the older adult. McClusky (1980) cited evidence that settings for congregate living are becoming increasingly popular locations for education.

Using a Freirian approach with an older population may bring numerous potential benefits. This approach may empower older adults and assist them in facing some of the developmental challenges encountered as they grow older. Radical adult educational methods may be beneficial to a variety of populations, and its application with different groups should be explored.

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THEORY-BASED PRACTICE: A MODEL SDLS PROGRAM

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ABSTRACT

Using the Adult Education Colloquium (AEC) at Florida State University as a model program, the authors discuss the importance of a Student-Directed Learning Structure (SDLS) in graduate adult education programs.

The AEC, as an SDLS, combines theory and practice to: (a) promote professional development, (b) encourage self-development, (c) increase knowledge of a diverse field, and (d) provide an opportunity to contribute to the development of the adult education program. An SDLS integrates theory and practice to achieve these four goals that are critical to developing professional adult educators.

INTRODUCTION

A Student-Directed Learning Structure (SDLS) is a framework for learning. It facilitates the preparation of adult educators as included in the apex of the leadership pyramid suggested by Houle (1956) and Knowles (1964). This article describes how the Adult Education Colloquium (AEC) a model SDLS program at Florida State University (FSU) prepares adult educators. Although SDLS's have have existed for many years, to our knowledge the term SDLS is new. It refers to formal and informal gatherings--such as brown bag seminars, student advisory councils, and graduate seminars--focused on a given problem or issue. An SDLS receives its primary direction and focus from graduate students and: (a). provides for adult education in action, (b). encourages the pursuit of independent learning within group setting, (c). provides an opportunity for students to develop professionally in a non-threatening manner, and (d). adds flexibility for students in shaping their graduate program. An SDLS is a means of ensuring that students develop the flexibility needed to be an educator in a diverse field of practice.

A model SDLS program, the AEC was started at FSU in 1987. The AEC portrays the essence and fundamental features of an SDLS. As an SDLS, it can encourage students to pursue both group and independent learning, stimulate intellectual growth, and promote the professional development implicit in the commitment of an adult educator (Constitution of the Adult Education Colloquium, 1987). The success of this model program has resulted in similar goals and objectives being adopted and adapted by Ohio State University (OSU). The AEC exemplified theory-based practice and can serve as a model SDLS program.

The AEC is both a club and a class. As a club, AEC is registered with the Florida State University student government which entitles the organization to obtain financial support provided by student government. As a class, the AEC is scheduled as a colloquium that meets during the Fall and Spring semesters each academic year for one hour of graduate course credit. AEC meets once

every two weeks for two hours. Membership in the AEC is primarily graduate students and faculty members in the adult education program. Graduate students are required to register for a minimum of three semesters of the colloquium as part of their program of study in adult education. After -hree semesters, students can continue as members and attend the colloquium without registering. However, the AEC is open to any student, in any field, whether or not they are registered for the Colloquium. Faculty responsibility rotates from semester to semester. Offering the AEC as required credit encourages graduate students to start attending AEC, after which it becomes a natural part of their academic pattern.

The goals of the AEC are to: (a). promote professional development as an adult educator, (b). encourage adult self-development, (c). increase knowledge of the field, and (d). contribute to the development of an adult education graduate program. The AEC is, then, an SDLS that seeks to combine theory and practice to enhance the academic preparation of professional adult educators.

THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS AND PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

The discussion which follows illustrates the ways in which AEC integrates theory and practice to achieve the four goals that are critical to developing professional adult educators. By integrating theory and practice in an SDLS, such as the AEC, students learn to critically analyze concepts, models, and research they encounter in the literature of adult education. Furthermore, such integration guards against what Brookfield (1988) calls a discontinuity between education and practice.

First Goal:Promote Professional Development as an Adult Educator

Because of the diversity of the field of adult education, even its experts find it difficult to agree on the most desirable competencies for a professional adult educator (Courtney, 1989). Identifying the functions which students will have to perform as full-time adult educators (Knowles, 1962) is an important factor in planning a professional graduate program. Adult educators work in a wide variety of organizations and institutions and do not always share common goals. For example, an assortment of experiences and training is represented in the membership of the AEC. The diverse membership includes women and men of various ethnic groups and nationalities. Many members are employed full-time while attending graduate school. Their professional interests and experience include

state government, private agencies, adult basic education, literacy, community education, international adult education, and more.

Houle's (1956, 1988) program of continuing self-education for adult educators is even more pertinent today. With the rapid changes in technology and information, it is imperative that students have an opportunity, such as within an SDLS, to keep abreast of current developments. The AEC serves as an up-to-date information source about what is happening in the field by providing networking opportunities. The AEC encourages adults to extend their learning beyond the university through involvement with adult education practitioners from different agencies and organizations.

The mentoring associated with the AEC is one way that graduate students are socialized into the adult education program. Many of the adult education traditions, common interests, concerns, and procedures are, intentionally and unintentionally, passed on by experienced graduate students. A new graduate student quickly discovers traditions and concerns of the adult education program through the AEC.

Darley (1962) suggests that professional education should focus on developing professionals who are "open to new knowledge and new ways to make knowledge for the future" (p. 207). Student leaders in the AEC continually search for new knowledge from the outside by bringing in speakers, calling on other members (who are also professionals) to share their experience, and by supporting members who wish to attend local, regional, and national conferences. For example, the AEC has featured several nationally recognized adult educators as guest speakers -- Jerold Apps in 1988, Laurent Daloz in 1989, Sharan Merriam in 1990, and Diane Buck Briscoe in 1991. During these visits, AEC graduate students have met these influential adult educators. The Club uses student government funds and fund-raising activities to bring speakers to campus.

Student government funds are also used to send AEC members to state and national meetings. Though it may be a token amount, it can sometimes mean the difference between attending or not attending a professional conference. For example, the AEC was able to help send a graduate student to the 1990 American Association for Adult and Continuing Education (AAACE) Annual Meeting in Salt Lake City.

The AEC also enables graduate students to serve in leadership positions. Inexperienced students can use

AEC meetings to develop leadership skills in a non-threatening, supportive environment. Those who have leadership experiences can further enhance those skills and talents. AEC students elect their own leaders each year and conduct meetings following parliamentary procedures outlined in Robert's Rules of Order. Leadership skills in evidence at AEC meetings include program development, facilitation of group activities, obtaining group consensus, public speaking, and team work.

The AEC has come to symbolize adult education in action. In effect, the AEC serves as a real-world practicum--with voluntary participation, individual motivation, assessments of needs and interests, and other program development activities. Some of the most stimulating programs have been presented by the graduate student members of the AEC, many of whom are employees of local agencies and organizations.

The educational purpose of the AEC is met by programs, presentations, and talks on topics selected by the student members. Students have a voice in shaping the agenda and curriculum for the AEC. While adult educators are concerned about recognizing students interests and needs, the AEC actually provides a structure for this to happen. The educational programs presented at the AEC complement the regular adult education curricula. Attending the AEC keeps one posted on the latest trends and issues in adult education.

Liveright (1988), Jensen, Liveright, and Hallenbeck (1964) recognized that graduate programs must engender a zest for continued learning. The AEC complements the academic portion of the adult education program in a practical way that capitalizes on the diversity of its membership; provides a non-threatening atmosphere; lends a social aspect to an otherwise serious routine of classes, reading and writing; and makes available opportunities for mentoring and support that create a unique situation for the development of professional adult educators.

Second Goal: Encourage Adult Self-Development

Hand-in-hand with professional development is the notion of selfdevelopment. Mutual support, often lacking in a professional atmosphere, is probably the benefit most mentioned by AEC members. This support can also serve to make the "passages" or "predictable crises" (Sheehy, 1976) associated with an adult returning to graduate school much more bearable. The adult students self-development at this time can occur within a group or supporting cast. This support

provides a sense of belonging to the adult education program. Graduate school can be a lonely educational process. This is especially apparent as one moves into the prospectus and dissertation stages of graduate work. It is encouraging to know that every two weeks a returning adult student can attend a meeting where other students, faculty, and friends offer words of support and encouragement.

Individually, and as a group, returning adult students can use the AEC as an informal system for problem-solving and conflict resolution. Many graduate student problems, complaints, and concerns are handled in an unofficial manner in the AEC. Often problems are resolved between and among graduate students instead of becoming an issue or concern on which faculty must expend time and effort.

An important part of the adult self-development process at this time is socializing with those who share common goals, problems, and concerns. The "meeting, greeting, and eating," while attending the AEC, serves as a meaningful social function for graduate students. Fellowship and companionship, which seem to be missing in many graduate programs, are a natural outgrowth of the AEC.

The unique characteristics of adults serve as a basis for much practice and study. Readiness to learn is a trait found frequently among adults, who are often seeking solutions for the problems faced in their daily lives (Knowles, 1978, 1980). Others may wish to upgrade their career or want to learn just for the sake of learning. All of these characteristics can be found among the members of the AEC as well as among their future clientele, i.e, adults in general. As they learn about themselves, they are learning about their future students.

Students close to finishing their degree, as well as professors, serve as mentors for new students. Sharing experiences can also help professors, as advisors, to recognize students' circumstances. Professors and students alike learn about the effects of critical life experiences on a student's development. At this time, students are juggling professional roles, student assignments, and family responsibilities. Sharing these experiences documents in real-life theories of adult development (Daloz, 1986).

In the AEC, adults are free to search, through trial and error, without fear of institutional or interpersonal threat. More times than not during AEC meetings, students talk to each other rather than to

faculty members, since meetings are led by graduate students. Although the meetings are "formal," there is a sense of informality about how things are done. The informal communication patterns among students and faculty promote interaction and provide a relaxed atmosphere. Also, many of the graduate students are not taking the AEC for credit and therefore are not being evaluated or graded. Students taking the AEC for credit negotiate evaluation of criteria with the faculty member of record. The atmosphere encourages the emergence of spontaneous leadership without threat of external, formal evaluation and control. The AEC allows graduate students and faculty to interact as friends-teaching-friends, with inherent mentoring and collaborative learning.

All AEC members contribute through their individual talents and abilities. The organization makes use of existing values, beliefs, customs, and attitudes as a starting point for educational activities as suggested by Aker (1962). Everyone can and does make a contribution to AEC activities. These contributions may not appear of equal value; however, they are not offered in a competitive manner. Each individual contributes in his or her own special way and at an appropriate time. For example, both men and women often display their culinary arts for sampling during meetings and often share their expertise in leadership.

On a practical note, the AEC members also provide each other with job placement and referral. Many a part-time job and a few professional positions have been arranged through fellow students in the AEC.

Third Goal: Increase Knowledge of the Field

The AEC serves as a vehicle for gaining knowledge of the field. Philosophical foundations or underpinnings offer the opportunity for graduate programs to have broad and diverse goals. Elias & Merriam (1980) proposed a range of philosophical foundations ranging from the liberals who believed in knowledge for its own sake to the radicals who believe knowledge is created by individuals. For those close to the liberal end of the continuum, the educator is one who possesses the knowledge and gives this knowledge to the student. On the other hand, the radical adult educator draws out knowledge from people so that individuals can use information and skills to improve their life situation.

The diversity of philosophical perspectives can be compared to Griffin's (1971) metaphor of a garden. Whereas one can take a singular focus of a garden of radishes or a garden of roses, she proposes a

pluralistic view which incorporates radishes and roses as well as other plants. The strength and utility of this position is that it recognizes and values the diversity of society. The AEC fulfills different purposes for different people and encourages the appreciation of alternative positions and their implications for practice.

The AEC helps increase knowledge of the field by serving as an information exchange and clearinghouse. It is a network for members of the AEC to exchange information, ideas, and materials. At AEC meetings, student-to-student "educating" takes place. Comments such as, "I found this article which should interest you in your study about..." or "Here's the name of an author you should check out about the subject of...", or "I found this matrix which explains what we were discussing last week," are often heard. Graduate students have also been known to educate a professor or two concerning the latest trends in adult education. Knowledge of the field is also increased when members share their work experiences, including new developments in each professional area.

Fourth Goal:Contribute to Development of an Adult Education Graduate Program.

The AEC provides the structure through which students contribute to the development of the graduate program in adult education at a major state university. For many years, the AEC at FSU had been inactive. In the fall of 1987, it appeared the adult education program at FSU was going to be disbanded. With the retirement of several professors and the untimely death of another, little was left of the faculty. Members of the AEC actively served as an advocate for the adult education program--to our own faculty, to other departmental faculty, and to the Dean of the College.

The AEC asked administrators and faculty of the College of Education to attend meetings and discuss future plans and intentions for the adult education program. Graduate students asked questions about the impact of possible changes or new program directions on their efforts as students. The number of students who attended these meetings and the types of questions asked showed that restructuring of the adult education program should not be taken lightly by the departmental administrators and faculty. By questioning university and college administrators, graduate students in the AEC have come to expect open access to information used in decision-making.

The AEC serves as an open and continuous forum for

discussion about proposed changes in policies or directions which could affect the adult education program. It provides the opportunity for discussion and continual renewal of the adult education program through critical evaluation, similar to the process espoused by Brookfield (1988). The AEC has helped keep open the lines of communication among all parties concerned with graduate adult education. The adult education faculty and departmental faculty chairpersons have come to view the AEC as an important "sounding board" concerning proposed policies, procedures, and changes. It has become a group which faculty see as important in obtaining input and suggestions.

Using the AEC as an effective communication vehicle, the adult education students and faculty can efficiently and effectively disseminate information. Communicating both the official and unofficial word is made easier by having such a group. Two tangible examples of how communication is expedited are the AEC's Adult Education Directory, as list of names, address and phone numbers of students, faculty, and friends and "Phone Tree," a process whereby selected members share the responsibility of phoning the total membership.

By having an active group of graduate students, faculty are constantly reminded of their overarching professional responsibilities. The FSU adult education faculty have been sensitized to view their academic role as encompassing more than instruction, research, and service. Faculty have a professional responsibility to do more than just move up the academic ladder. They must also serve graduate students (as symbolized by the AEC) as part of their professional responsibilities. The power of the adult education faculty as leaders in the academic community is enhanced by having this professional student group serve as a faculty leadership base. The faculty sponsorship of the AEC carries with it a sense of enhanced professionalism.

An example of this enhanced professionalism was the renewal of the Colloquium in the fall of 1987. AEC members wrote letters to the Dean asking that the adult education program be continued and encouraging the hiring of new faculty as expeditiously as possible. Students served on two different college-wide search committees established to help hire new faculty members.

AEC members assured each other and provided mutual support during these trying times. This was perhaps one of the most significant functions of the AEC at the

time and certainly in the history of the organization. This mutual support and effort served as an impetus for professional growth and development for both students and faculty. The adult education faculty and students joined together as a professional team.

Finally, the AEC provides a dynamic image for graduate school. Graduate students who are active, vocal, and professional build an image of a strong and vital academic program. This image is projected to the many guest speakers who have attended AEC meetings through the years. These speakers have included faculty from all departments in the College of Education, from other colleges within the University, from agencies and organizations located in the community and, as noted earlier, nationally renowned adult educators. Graduate students who conduct themselves and their organization professionally reflect well on the adult education faculty sponsors and the adult education program.

CONCLUSION

The AEC at FSU is a model SDLS program that combines theory and practice, promotes professional development and self-development, increases knowledge of a diverse field, and provides an opportunity to contribute to the development of the adult education program. These four goals are reflected in the written comments submitted by AEC members at an evaluation meeting held on April 2, 1990. Typical statements are as follows: "It provides a forum to share and draw from the experiences of others." "The Colloquium enables me to understand what the adult education program is all about in a more anxiety-free atmosphere." "It is a chance to experience the student group's expression of its own programmatic and professional needs and see how they are dealt with in a group setting." "Birds of a feather flock together--the Colloquium helps us get to know who is in the adult education program, to ask/get/give help to each other, and to have some place (club) where you know you belong." "It provides an opportunity for collaboration and interaction with other individuals interested in the field of adult education."

These statements also indicate how an SDLS supplements the academic program, enhances the preparation of professional adult educators, and provides opportunities for participation. In conclusion, this model offers other graduate programs in adult education an opportunity to enhance the education and development of those who will shape the future of the field.

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THE NEED FOR CONTINUING EDUCATION FOR THE DEAF: ARE ADULT EDUCATORS LISTENING?

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ABSTRACT

This article addresses the need for improved educational programs for deaf adults. An historical perspective of the philosophy and methodology for educating the deaf provides a background for understanding the current problems for hearing impaired and deaf adults. The article includes information and recommendations for adult educators who want to improve educational instruction, methodology, and programming for deaf adult learners.

INTRODUCTION

In 1648, educating the deaf was considered a miracle.

> Exhibiting the Philosophicall verity of the subtile Art, which may inable one with an observant Eie to Heare what any man speaks by the moving of his lips. Upon the same Ground, with the advantage of an Historic all Exemplification, apparently proving that a man borne Deafe and Dumbe may be taught to Heare the sounds of words with the Eie and thence learne to speake with his Tongue.
>
> John Bulwer, 1648

Although the philosophy has changed in the last 300 years, the methodology of deaf education is often the center of controversy. Deaf education has improved through enacting public laws (Klugerman, 1989), increasing schools for the deaf (Cleve, 1987), and changing societal attitudes (Culhane & Williams, 1982). However, the emphasis has been on educating deaf children. In these times of rapid change, deaf adults need opportunities for basic and continuing education in all facets of their lives. This article begins with an historical perspective on educating the deaf followed by information adult educators need to know concerning their deaf learners. The final section provides recommendations to adult educators who want to improve educational programming and instruction for deaf adults.

AN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE ON EDUCATING THE DEAF

To understand the current educational situation for deaf adult learners, it is necessary to look at the philosophical and pedagogical changes concerning the deaf throughout history. Beginning with the Greeks, Aristotle's view concerning the nature of thought as the basis for language and learning, seemed to confirm the deaf could not be taught. Gannon (1982) notes that Aristotle's influence regarding this incorrect cause-effect relationship led to the delay of education for the deaf for hundreds of years. Even after the fall of the Roman empire, the Christian church made no attempt to educate the deaf, since it appeared evident that the deaf were not endowed by the Creator and consequently would not benefit from education (DiCarlo, 1964). Later, schools, such as the one established by a Spanish monastery in 1550, attempted to use religious education to save the souls of the deaf (Rodda & Grove, 1987).

During the nineteenth century, education of the deaf began to accelerate and there was relative freedom for and acceptance of the deaf. They were believed to be intelligent and capable of learning, and sign language became an acceptable form of communication (Sailor,

For practitioners who have already determined a readiness in the business community to initiate a workplace literacy intervention, the first important requirement involves knowing the structure of the organization which will be collaborating in the program. It is essential to become aware of the chain of command, the role of unions, the commitment of the organization to employees, the overall goals of the organization and whether or not there are internal or external conflicts within the company. All of this foundational information provides an awareness of the organizational process which is at the heart of any basic skills training program. Needless to say, this organizational process is unique to each workplace. In some of the larger and medium-sized companies, organizing structures such as Equal Employment Opportunities Committees or Reclassification and Manpower Adaptability Committees supported the overall development of the initiative. In smaller companies, one often finds a less formal group usually consisting of the owner and front-line supervisor, providing the thrust and direction for the literacy training. As a rule of thumb, getting to know the organizational process and identifying support and potential barriers seems to be a fundamental requirement for the development of a workplace literacy intervention.

Conducting a Situational Analysis

A second requirement for developing a workplace program is to understand the rationale for conducting a situational analysis. This type of analysis entails an examination of the perceived needs of an organization to determine whether the problems have educational solutions and whether the educational solutions have a literacy component. In some of the existing programs, both the company and committee structures determined that before introducing a new technology, a pre-training component was required which included basic skills in literacy and numeracy. In other programs, based on a needs assessment of middle managers, union representatives and previous unsuccessful experiences, ESL and literacy training were integrated. What seems to be common in many of these initiatives is that, for each workplace, a different type of situational analysis is required. However, the information from this examination of the organization provides a clearly marked roadmap for guiding the program development. In other words, by conducting a needs assessment both the climate and resources of the organization become apparent.

Negotiation

Thirdly, any effective workplace intervention involves negotiation and a contract with the organization to provide the literacy services. Deciding on who the partners are, the services to be offered, the content of the program, participation details, program structure and schedule, resource commitment, assessment strategy, and evaluation procedures are all important components of a program that require some type of contractual agreement. After such an agreement has been made to proceed, the actual program planning can begin. As part of the planning strategy, it is

important to develop a program that meets the need of the organization and at the same time is perceived by participants to be worthwhile. By soliciting input from management, labour, trainers and workers, as was the case in many of the existing programs, an agenda for partnership building can be initiated at this early stage and further developed throughout the intervention.

Effective Program Evaluation

A fourth requirement in developing and implementing basic skills training is the continuous, circular process of an effective program evaluation. This exercise should not end program planning but rather be an integral part of it. Measuring the effectiveness of a workplace literacy program should involve thinking through some of the following steps: What are the goals of the program? What objectives will be set to reach those program goals? What testing procedures or assessment techniques will be used? What is the time line of these goals? Who will be involved with the evaluation and how will the results of the evaluation be used? And how has the program affected the training policies or workplace orgnization? Underlying each of these questions is the increasing awareness that confirming evidence such as demonstrated improvements in performing job-related literacy tasks or program impacts may be more useful than the self-reports of those involved. Although this is a new area of literacy evaluation, some program designs are beginning to indicate the relationship between literacy abilities and productivity, and specifically how the program intends to identify the expected outcomes.

While there is no one formula or prescription for successfully implementing a basic skills training program across the varied occupational sectors, there now appears to be some markers on the roadmap. These efforts should be applauded because they help orient and point directions for the next part of the journey. Given the evolving nature of the field, however, it is our challenge to find as many routes as possible to end up at the same destination.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

Deepening the Dialogue and Increasing Action

Any discussion on a topic such as workforce literacy with members from business, labour and education engenders an opportunity for a deeper understanding of what is working and what could work better. Such is the case in this account. Embedded in each position or viewpoint are the questions that now require answers. First, if the business community needs to be convinced that workplace literacy is an investment in survival, then what specific types of concise and factual information are needed? Second, if literacy programs are to empower workers, then what are the impacts on the workplace structure? Third, even if there has been only a small degree of success in delivering workplace lit-

eracy programs, how do we speak about this so that others may see themselves in the experience? Although some pioneering efforts are being made by business, labour and education to move workplace literacy from the shelf to the floor, the fact that there are no quick solutions suggests that the time is ripe for innovation.

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BIOGRAPHICAL NOTES

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AMERICA"

by

Terrence R. Redding

Smith, Page (1990). KILLING THE SPIRIT: HIGHER EDUCATION IN AMERICA. New York, NY: Viking Penguin Books.

KILLING THE SPIRIT asserts that tradition and the academy's resistance to change create an educational environment in which the mind is not liberated but systematically confined and forced to sameness of thought. This well-written 305 page book powerfully develops this thesis with historical examples from Page Smith's personal experiences. Smith cites two major taboos that can lead to student academic failure and a no-vote of confidence for extending a young scholar's work. First is failure to stay within the confines imposed by the leaders of the academy, and second trying to introduce new thought, or even a fresh philosophy of thought.

Some readers will view Smith's potrayal of the academy through his personal experience as limiting; others will see it as adding credibility and a richness that can only be present in the writings of one who has lived it. This book requires its readers to accept or reject Smiths ideas. In either case, readers will be motivated to champion their notion of higher education. For continuing adult educators and members of the academy committed to continuing higher education, KILLING THE SPIRIT is a caution against adopting too narrow a point of view, and being too quick to move toward the mainstream of American higher education. For the members of the academy who view themselves as safely near the middle of their discipline, the book pleads that they take a critical look and evaluate whether they collectively stifle new bright minds and drive new entrants to conformity.

Using a compelling literary style, Smith portrays events in their historical context. The reader is, therefore, able to understand the event, some of its causes, and eventual effects. The introduction is especially appealing because, from its overview of the book, the reader cannot only anticipate the tone of the remainder of the book but more importantly understand the author's motive for writing it.

In his first chapter, "Mapping the Desert," Smith explores the current situation found on college and university (which he calls the academy) campuses. A key ingredient to his position, that the academy is approaching moral bankruptcy, is illustrated by his examples of academic fundamentalism. Smith suggests that at the heart of academic fundamentalism

is the notion that religion in any context has no place in science and research. In one example, Gothic architecture is taught by a professor with no mention made of underlying religious passions that fueled its creation. A second example refers to a work on Populism, a native American political movement, but fails to mention evangelical Protestantism out of which Populism rose. Smith queried the author of the work on Populism, about the omission, and found that the author thought omitting religion was being more "scientific" (p.96). These and other examples of excessive emphasis on "science" at the expense of teaching leave the reader questioning how American higher education ever reached such a sad situation.

Smith believes that most members of academe perceive themselves as liberal, not inclined to be materialistic or competitive and vaguely "socialistic" (p.146). Smith, observing their actual behavior, portrays them as highly competitive and ambitious. They compete at every level, first for grades, then admission to prestigious institutions for graduate study, and finally with one another for tenure. Rather than being liberated, Smith thinks that, "He/she thus guards that investment of time jealously, fends off intruders, and does his/her best to improve the return on his/her investment through the various career strategies that we are familiar with" (p. 190). This boils down to intentionally or unintentionally opposing anything that might undermine academic standing through the introduction of new thought and rejecting notions that could challenge longly held beliefs and positions.

The author's writing style is at its best when he discusses historical aspects of education. His outline of the American educational system and its beginnings is the clearest, most concise writing I have seen on this topic. While providing a sense of the times in which important decisions were being made, he quickly moves the reader through the history of the American college and university. His introduction to American higher education begins with the Protestant Reformation and the roots of its traditions of learning with "The Seven Liberal Arts," established in the medieval university.

From that point, he describes the founding of early American colleges in the colonies and the effect that religious and political ideas had on their formation. Of particular interest, was the description of the educational positions taken by the founding fathers. Most readers will be familiar with Jefferson and Franklin's educational ideas, but they may not have been fully exposed to the practical concepts of Noah Webster. Many reading this book will appreciate that we can know very little of "who" we are if we fail to learn "why" we are. Smith provides the "why" about American higher education.

After laying the foundation in his chapter "The Beginning," he continues with the history of American higher education in a chapter entitled, "The New Republic." He explores the practical education versus classical education debate as well as the rapid spread of new denominational colleges to the west, fueled by graduates from such institutions as Yale. He discusses the problems associated with high graduate drop-out rates. Smith attributes the relatively high literacy rate in early America and the ready availability of colleges to the efforts of the various Christian denominations, noting however, that quality became an issue. The United States came to have too many institutions and little standardization in evaluating curriculum or content. Quality higher education and the pursuit of knowledge, became associated with the new universities in Germany and older colleges associated with Europe.

After clearly establishing this historical background, Smith walks the reader through the formation of universities in the United States and the difficulties associated with that effort. Discussing the establishment of graduate programs in America and the point that it was not an overnight or automatic success, he takes time to describe the social and political scene to maintain the historical context. Hardly a paragraph goes by without the reader being exposed to a concept or idea interwoven with the history of its time. Tying this effort to the formation of the Land Grant Institutions, he completes our understanding of how American higher education reached its current state.

To defend his position he includes numerous citations to support his argument. Smith attacks a number of the academy's valued institutions. As soon as Smith begins to discuss recent educational history KILLING THE SPIRIT becomes more detailed, even tedious to read.

Smith brings the reader to understand the historical relevance of how the Ph. D. and tenure system came to exist, the importance placed on higher education by society and the emergence of research and research dollars as a compelling force that continues to shape higher education today. Smith summarizes his concept of the value of the Ph. D. with these words: "There seems little doubt from the perspective of the present day that the introduction of the Ph. D. as the so-called union card of the profession was, if not a disaster, an unfortunate and retrograde step" (p. 108). Citing William James, Smith selected these words and phrases to describe the Ph. D. as "the Mandrian disease", a "'Teutonic' invention, completely foreign to American ways". He balances his citations with examples of the inappropriate value placed on the Ph. D. and with its granting institution and argues that the length of time it takes to achieve a Ph. D. in some disciplines is determined more by the discipline's desire to be taken seriously than a real need for arduous preparation. He describes the process as containing

unnecessary impediments. Citing his own unnecessary learning of multiple foreign languages he reports:

> Indeed, three or four years after I had displayed my "mastery" of German, I couldn't translate a page of German history text, and would bet a bundle that the same would be true for the vast majority of my fellow "Americanists," as we are generically referred to. One might ask why reason or humanity didn't prevail and allow such meaningless (and time- consuming) requirements to be dropped. Well, primarily because it had no rational basis to begin with; ... (p. 110).

Of more importance than unnecessary impediments to Smith is the transition from humanities grounded in logical positivism to humanities based on analytic philosophy. This transition, according to Smith, reduces the humanities until nothing of real value is left. Recent educational history is a personal history for Smith. It is clear that the distance of time, and its ability to provide natural insulation between a historian and the human events of which he writes, has not eased the burden for Smith when explaining these more recent topics. His presentation of recent educational history reflects his personal involvement and is opinionated, but, straightforward.

The five longest chapters in the book are "The Revolt of the Youth," "Publish or Perish," "Teaching," "The Social Nonscience," and "The Inhuman Humanities," These chapters lay out the faults of American higher education and the cause of dissatisfaction. Central to the notion of a student revolt was the idea that universities lacked "soul" and were preoccupied with piling up vast amounts of incomprehensible facts without being concerned about "eternal truths." The terminology and goals of a nation concerned with the war in Vietnam and the expansion of capitalism were thrown back in the faces of educators by dissatisfied students.

Smith portrays young academics as prostituting their scholarly pursuits in an effort to gain academic recognition and tenure at the expense of good teaching. Teaching is supposed to benefit from research, but Smith believes it does not, leading the academy instead to virtually ignore the accomplishments of teachers. The result is that successful new academics are often the least original and most likely to be conformists. Smith makes explicit his views with these words:

> The first fact to be established is that there is no direct relationship between research and teaching. The notion that research enhances teaching, although thoroughly discredited by experience and research, is one that lingers on and is often trotted out by the ill-informed as a justification for the publish-or-perish policy.

Teaching should be founded in student needs, a concept central to Smith's essay on teaching. He abhors the dull lecture or the the dispirited graduation exercise: instead he applauds the the emotional presentation of a thought, ideal, or series of facts that strikes a resonant emotional cord in the listeners. He encourages the notion of "festival" as one of the oldest forms of human expression and joy. Each of these chapters contain sufficient content to justify their treatment as separate books.

Smith closes KILLING THE SPIRIT by denouncing efforts to make social sciences into true sciences, noting strongly and repeatedly that much of the usefulness of the social sciences has been removed as they align themselves with social causes while avioding political causes and ignoring the impact of religion on humanity. To state that knowledge is to be used and that it does not mature into wisdom in and itself, he quotes Sir Walter Moberly:

"If you want a bomb the chemistry department will teach you how to make it, if you want a cathedral the department of architecture will teach you how to build it, if you want a healthy body the department of physiology and medicine will teach you how to tend it. But when you ask whether and why you should want bombs or cathedrals or healthy bodies, the university .. .. .. must be content to be dumb and impotent. It can give help and guidance in all things subsidiary but not in the attainment of the one thing needful. In living their lives the young are left 'the sport of every random gust.' But for the educator this is abdication .. .. .. We have paid the tithe or mint and anis and cummin, and have omitted the weightier matters of the law, judgement, mercy and faith (p. 295-296)."

In his closing chapter "Reviving the Spirit," Smith tells the reader that those things which have been disregarded in building building modern American university must be regained: that science needs religion, that the teaching become more important to institutions of learning than research, that the complexity of institutions be simplified. Schools must be down sized for students to find a place in more but smaller campuses. With the example of the California system, and his own institution at Santa Cruz, he demonstrates how such down sizing could take place.

KILLING THE SPIRIT argues forcefully for change. However, Page Smith's argument for change would be strengthened if he provided citations of others in the academy who were also calling for change. It is an excellent book for any academic's "must read" list.

1988). In 1816, the United States established the New York Institute for the Deaf and Dumb (DiCarlo, 1964), and the world's first college for the deaf, Gallaudet, opened its doors in 1864 (Gannon, 1982). Some set-backs occured when oralism (the position that the deaf should lip read instead of use sign language) created anti-deaf attitudes. This inhibited the acceptance of sign language in the schools as late as 1955 (Sailor, 1988).

The first half of the twentieth century saw a gradual increase in educational programs for deaf adults. State schools in Iowa and Minnesota initiated correspondence courses for their former pupils who were deaf in an effort toward continuing education. In St. Louis, evening basic education classes were held in English, math, and vocational programs (Cleve, 1987). The Civil Rights Movement of the 1950s and 60s increased awareness of all minority groups' needs, including the deaf. This awareness grew into action with the establishment of the National Theater for the Deaf (Gannon, 1982) and the National Technical Institute for the Deaf (Welsh, 1982). The first serious effort to institute adult education classes for the deaf occurred in 1963 when the San Fernando Valley State College started an area-wide adult education program enlisting deaf participants for a leadership training program (Jacobs, 1989). The momentum grew as various cities started adult education programs for the deaf in metropolitan areas such as Washington, D.C.; Flint, Michigan; Kansas City, Missouri; and in four Wisconsin communities.

In the 1970s, community colleges, vocational schools and postsecondary schools began to place more emphasis on programs for the deaf (Gannon, 1982). In 1979, the California State University established the Deaf Adult with Need (DAWN) program. The goal of the program was to select and familiarize deaf persons with methods and materials in adult education and to develop leadership within the deaf community. The strongest move to educate deaf adults occurred in 1979 with the development of the Center for Continuing Education at Gallaudet University. The Center worked in consortium with a network of continuing education programs in Washington, D.C., demonstrating programs to mainstream deaf adults (Cleve, 1987). The center evolved into the College for Continuing Education (CCE), comprised of the following units: Programs in Adult and Community Education (PACE), Extension and Summer Programs office, and the National Academy, which coordinates professional training (Jacobs, 1989).

WHAT ADULT EDUCATORS SHOULD KNOW ABOUT DEAF LEARNERS

External prejudice and misconceptions are the major barriers for the deaf. Understanding adult learner needs is a basic precept of adult education practice and in regard to the deaf student, it is essential. The hearing teacher or program planner may have little in common with deaf adults, and in order to better meet the student's needs, adult educators must learn about the deaf culture and community.

DEMOGRAPHICS

To describe population characteristics, sociologists typically divide society into subgroups based on culture, race, gender, religion, and income. The deaf population is present in all areas, fitting in everywhere, and yet because of deafness, nowhere. The deaf adult is not easily characterized because there is relatively little research on deaf adults. They are as diversified as their hearing peers, and although society holds certain stereotypes for the deaf, members of the deaf community may have no more in common with each other than their deafness (Malone, 1986).

Rodda and Grove (1987) report 13.5 million adults in the U.S. have some degree of hearing impairment ranging from hard of hearing to prelingually deaf, and 400,000 people become deaf before the age of nineteen. In addition, there is a higher percentage of men than women who are prevocationally deaf (Cleve, 1987). According to the April 1989 issue of AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF, of the individuals who are in some form of deaf education, 70% are white, 14% are Black and 12% are Hispanic.

THE DEAF COMMUNITY AND INDIVIDUAL IDENTITY

The deaf community develops its own culture. There is a wide range of psychological and sociological consequences involved in having a separate community, and individual development takes place within attitudes and values of the culture (Rodda & Grove, 1987). Jacobs (1974) writes that the deaf community is close-knit and enjoys the advantages of a small town. By the nature of the problem, deafness is different from other disabling conditions, and the deaf culture is strong, well-established, and proud of its heritage (Rodda & Grove, 1987).

A major reason often cited for the development of the deaf community is the shared communication of sign language (Neisser, 1983). However, the community also provides the deaf individual with a strong sense of identity (Culhane & Williams, 1982). In addition, deaf individuals feel more at ease within the community and

95% of deaf adults marry deaf partners (Jacobs, 1974). In a hearing environment, people will often visit by phone, while the deaf are more likely to visit in person, creating a more social atmosphere. The deaf community is also very independent and has consistently refused income tax exemption. They maintain their own clubs and have built a tradition of self-help and mutual support (Neisser, 1983). As with any community, there are differences among individuals. Culhane and Williams (1982) report that status within the group involves factors of education, sophistication, race, age, and communication skills, which indicate parallels with the hearing world. Membership in the community is based on the desire to belong, as well as acceptance from the group. However, membership from birth is rare since the majority of deaf children are born to hearing parents (Rodda & Grove, 1987).

EMPLOYMENT

Although deafness is not related to socio-economic level, some hearing impairments are associated with poor living conditions (Rodda & Grove, 1987). This disadvantage often begins with school placement and continues into adult life. Deaf adults often earn 20% less than their hearing peers (Malone, 1986) while nonwhite, prevocationally deaf earn 62% of the income of the general population (Rodda & Grove, 1987). In 1970, deaf women earned 60% of their male counterpart's income and the percentage rose only 11% by 1988 (Welsh, 1988).

The current employment situation remains bleak for deaf adults. Malone (1986) reports that in some parts of the country, the unemployment rate for deaf people is four times that of the hearing. Furthermore, under employment continues to be a persistent problem. In the 1970s the unemployment rate was about the same for both deaf and the hearing persons. However, within ten years unemployment for the deaf increased as changes in the economy occurred and hearing baby-boomers competed for jobs. Deaf workers are found in every type of job, but there is a disproportionate representation of deaf adults in clerical and service occupations (Cleve, 1987), in which technology creates the greatest threat for loss of jobs. Deaf adults are overrepresented in the skilled, semiskilled, and unskilled jobs, while they are underrepresented in the professional and administrative professions (Birnbaum, 1982).

EDUCATION

Educating the deaf can be complex because of diverse communication methods, the range of educational

settings, and historically low level of English skills (Akamatsu & Stewart, 1987). In discussing the barriers of educational settings, the focus is often on the lack of interpreters and counselors. The opposing viewpoint is that the deaf have no problems in the classroom, because they can lip read. However, Glass (1974) reports only 23% learn to lip read effectively. The most effective educational vehicles are schools like Gallaudet University because of the total dedication to the needs of the deaf (Birnbaum, 1982). Hurwitz (1970) points out that it is important to be sensitive to what deaf people want to learn, not what society thinks they ought to learn. Often barriers are created through stereotypic images of the deaf(Lane, 1988). In his review of literature on typical deaf adult behavior in educational settings, descriptors such as "socially isolated", "intellectually weak", "behaviorally impulsive", and "emotionally immature" were noted. Lane suggests these characteristics present false images because of biased and inadequate testing procedures.

Although education has become more accessible to the deaf, there remains another serious obstacle: reading underachievement (Gormley & Frazen, 1978). Reading is one of the most neglected areas of education despite the fact that it is the primary method of communicating academic material (Rodda & Grove, 1987). Crandell (1982) writes that society has not succeeded in teaching the vast majority of deaf people to read at a level that will allow them to succeed in the academic and professional world. Lane (1988) reports the average deaf school graduate has only achieved a fourth grade reading level.

Malone (1986) notes there is a lack of educational programs for the deaf who need continuing education for success. As seen throughout history, attitudes of society toward the deaf have a strong influence on educational programming (Culhane & Williams, 1982). Earlier in this century, it was a common belief that deaf children showed a slower rate of academic achievement and should therefore be entered into school later. Over eighty years later, the average deaf adult completes less than 12 years of school (Cleve, 1987).

RECOMMENDATIONS TO ADULT EDUCATORS

A deaf person's requirement for continuing education is even greater than that of the hearing because there is a great need to keep up with the fast changing economic and job markets. But most deaf adults cannot use most of the current adult education offerings without special provisions to bridge the communication gap

(Costello, 1977). However, deaf adults must be given the opportunity to make their own decisions about their educational needs. Broussal (1982) notes that education for the deaf is geared toward compensation. Manual communication, lip reading, or a combination are broadly offered in adult education programs and are aimed at compensating for the loss of hearing. However, a more important issue is not simply compensation, but recognition and understanding of the deaf culture.

Adult educators can combine their expertise in working with adults with a practical knowledge of the needs of deaf learners to enhance continuing education for deaf adults in three areas: teaching, program planning, and research.

TEACHING

Broussal (1982) writes that the best advice for educators who are concerned about working with the deaf is that after noting the physical limitation, and making every effort to neutralize the adverse effects of the physical environment, TEACH. Teaching to meet the needs of deaf learners requires their learning styles, which may include increasing the use of visual aids to enhance a lesson.

Instructors should consider using a variety of methods. Lectures have not proven effective for deaf learners who must rely on lip reading or interpreters. Tebo (1984) describes the effectiveness of using the dramatization/discussion model at the Rhode Island Rehabilitation Association in which workshops for the deaf were presented in a program called "Information Please". The use of role play eliminated the need for an intermediary between the speaker and the audience. Brick (1967) also supports the use of role play with the deaf because it bridges the gap between the real world and the classroom by giving the learner an opportunity to try different behaviors, act out conflict, and gain a better understanding of differing viewpoints.

The manner of communicating between the hearing educator and the deaf student is important. When an interpreter is used, teachers should avoid the tendency to address the interpreter instead of the student. The interpreter is merely a vehicle for communication. Some deaf adults lip read, for the instructor must to face the students when speaking. Raising the voice is not recommended since it not only draws attention to the deaf adult and annoys their hearing peers, but makes it more difficult to accurately read the

exaggerated lip movements.

Learning sign language can open doors for educators and students. Although deaf students who become part of a hearing class would not necessarily expect the teacher to sign while instructing, teachers who know the language of their students can provide better academic counseling, act as role model, and get to know the student on a more personal level.

PROGRAM PLANNING

Program planning begins with a working philosophy about the goals, methods, and attitudes regarding the learner. Program planners who start with a perspective of deaf learners as being deficient or not the norm, will create barriers instead of building bridges for the deaf adult learner. Changing such a perspective is essential. For example, Rodda and Grove (1982) comment that deaf adults need more opportunities to interact with hearing peers. Perhaps a better view would be for hearing adults to have greater opportunities to interact with their deaf peers. Instead of starting with a belief of what is normal, program planners should look specifically at the needs of deaf adults. Culhane and Williams (1982) write that in planning educational programs for the deaf, it is important to address strategies that promote social growth.

The best way to understand the needs of adult learners is to ask the learners themselves. In his discussion of planning programs for deaf adults, Boyle (1981) emphasized the importance of using the deaf community to get input and guidance. Leadership and support in the deaf community is vital to the success promotion of a program (Lassiter, 1974; Mayes, 1971).

Learning about the deaf culture is essential to understanding the educational needs of the deaf. Adult educators can learn about deaf adults by becoming involved in organizations for the deaf and hearing which can often be found in the community or in higher education settings. In this way, adult educators can come to understand deaf adults from the perspective of their culture.

RESEARCH

The dissemination of research through publications and conferences can dispel assumptions, myths and fears about working with deaf adults. There has been little research in the field of adult education on deaf adults. Research on deaf education is dominated by the needs and programs of deaf children. Adult education

researchers can bring a new perspective to studying this special population. These researchers begin with questions that focus on the aspect of being an "adult" and what that means to the educational process, whereas other researchers begin with the characteristic of "deafness" which can ignore the special needs of deaf adult learners.

Working with community organizations who serve deaf adults can provide a practical starting point in identifying the areas of needed research. In addition, becoming involved with the deaf community and its leadership, can enable researchers to focus on areas which deaf adults see as important. Another source of information can be found at Gallaudet University because of its total dedication to the needs of the deaf throughout their lifetimes.

CONCLUSION

Education for the deaf has focused mainly on the needs of children. Yet it is the deaf adult who must deal with the rapid changes of today's society which require greater literacy, workplace, and professional development skills. Without continuing education, deaf adults cannot effectively compete with their hearing peers. Of even greater significance is that the lack of education for deaf adults creates greater boundaries and barriers in a hearing society.

A review of history indicates a changing philosophy about educating the deaf. Yet there has been little emphasis on the adults of this special population. The experience and expertise of adult educators can do a great deal to enhance the educational programming for the deaf. The wisdom of Myles Horton refers to the need of working with today's adults if we are to change the conditions for the future (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982).

The field of adult education asks pointed questions about specific issues related to adults. It is this capacity of the field which will open doors for another part of the adult population -- the deaf.

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TOWARDS AN ANTI-RACIST, FEMINIST TEACHING METHOD

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents contemporary ideas and writings about anti-racist and feminist education and a corresponding teaching methodology. The article discusses the essential elements of anti-racist, feminist education and the curricular implications of this teaching approach, emphasizing Canadian perspectives and literature. It concludes by making recommendations for creating an institutional climate and structure in which these alternative pedagogies can be practiced.

INTRODUCTION

Anti-racist education in general and teaching methods in particular are of increasing interest to educators in advanced capitalist countries of the West, where there are significant non-European populations residing as citizens, immigrants, and refugees. This fact, along with the development of popular movements against racism and sexism, such as the larger women's, civil rights, and labour movements (Leah, 1991), have made anti-bias education an agenda item for educators. Elsewhere in the world, variations of this theme exist in efforts to bridge systemic inequalities that have historically existed between men and women and between different castes, classes, and races. In all these efforts, education is frequently viewed as a midwife to a society which is proactively fighting discrimination.

Throughout this article, the phrase "people of color" refers to people who are defined as "non-white", except when referring to government and other formal documents which often use different terminology, such as "visible minority." People of European, background

will be referred to as "white." The racial naming of people is problematic because "race" is a social construct based on superficial physical characteristics. Racial identities and labels emerge through a complex process of struggle, imposition and negotiation, involving socially disempowered groups, dominant group members, and hegemonic legal and political institutions. Currently, "people of color" seems to be the least objectionable reference to non-white peoples in Canada.

Factors Influencing Change on Campus

Problems of sexism and racism, like harassment and segregation, have always been present on university campuses (Yawney, 1990) just as they have existed in every sphere of Canadian society. However, in the 1970's and 1980's, these issues were made more visible by organizations of women and people of color which demanded systemic approaches to eradicating discriminatory attitudes and practices. Feminist and anti-racist movements in contemporary Canada integrated the two oppressions emanating from race and gender issues, sometimes with a third, namely classism (Vorst, 1991). This integration of race, class and gender issues has been led by women of color in the community While these discriminatory relations exist at the institutional and systemic realms where they are reproduced by power structures, it has to be recognized that individual attitudes and actions play a pivotal role in translating power differences into daily life (Allan, 1988).

As influential institutions, universities should fight sexism and racism. Moreover, under the contract compliance program of the Government, universities are now obliged to initiate Employment Equity Programs for women, aboriginal groups, visible minorities, and people with disabilities (Equity Counts, 1991). Incidents of racial harassment on campus have dramatized the need to urgently address these issues (de Leon & Saunders, 1992).

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Epistemologies and Assumptions

Anti-racist and feminist education are not "subjects" or "add-ons". They represent a process and an approach to the teaching and learning dialectic. Lee (1985) stated that "anti-racist education is a perspective that permeates all subject areas and school practices. Its aim is the eradication of racism in all its forms..."(p.8). Shrewsbury (1987) argued that where

feminist pedagogy is in process, the classroom is a "liberatory environment" where students and teachers are engaged with themselves, with the materials they study, with others they struggle against, and with the communities and other social change movements

One of the most important writers and practitioners of anti-racist education is Barbara Thomas. Even though she discusses primarily an anti-racist approach, her ideas are equally relevant for other forms of critical pedagogy, including feminist pedagogy. In "Principles of Anti-racist Education" (1984), she discusses five principles related to an anti-racist, feminist teaching approach: (a) dealing with power inequalities (b) recognizing alternative bases of knowledge (c) viewing the educational system in the context of the larger political economy (d) involving the entire society, not just the targets of discrimination, and (e) promoting a collective struggle rather than an individual one.

Principle One

The first principle deals with acknowledging power inequalities. According to Thomas, this is what differentiates "anti-racist education" from "multicultural education." While multiculturalism promotes the sharing and celebration of diverse cultures as a way of furthering racial "harmony", she argues that this does not solve the problem of racism. Thomas states:

> It would be nice if all cultures are equally powerful in this country...whether one is talking about the aspects of culture which derive from one's gender, class, race or ethnicity. Unequal power not only limits the dimensions of one's culture which can be legitimately expressed. More significantly unequal power limits one's ability to earn a living. (p.21).

The importance of power inequalities in society which enables certain groups, in this case men and whites, to dominate other groups, such as women and people of color, have to be addressed by anti-racist, feminist educators. These educators have to provide space and an environment in which racism, sexism, prejudices and stereotypes can be discussed and analysed. Moreover, knowledge and skills have to be developed in students to enable them to identify, analyze and act against them in appropriate ways.

Principle Two

Secondly, Thomas (1984) argues that culture has to be

viewed as dynamic rather than stereotypical as it has generally come to be seen. Culture must be viewed as being created by the daily lived experiences of a people, rather than being a monopoly of an elite. Therefore, it includes the people's struggles and incorporates an historical understanding of a culture. This means that the experiences, viewponts and knowledge bases of members of the community including those at the margins of it, have to be acknowledged and incorporated into classroom discussion. This requires a rethinking of our concept of knowledge, how it develops, who has it, and how to develop it further.

Principle Three

The third point that Thomas (1984) makes is that anti-racist educators have to view the educational system as part of the overall political economy in which we live. Others who have made a similar argument include Sarup (1986), Mazurek (1987) and Shrewsbury (1987). They argued that the educational system does not provide true equality of opportunity to students. As part of a society marked by inequalities, schools reproduce these inequalities in the name of meritocracy. Schools maintain differential rewards to motivate some people to "sacrifice"; they are then labelled as "more talented and intelligent". Schools also maintain unequal values of social roles, e.g. doctor over janitor, nurse over mother, farm owner over farmworker, etc. These value judgments are made on the logic that the latter roles are "less" important than the former for society's survival, or certain roles are more difficult than others. Therefore, some discrimination is allowed openly and in fact encouraged. Anti-racist and feminist educators would argue that the ideology of meritocracy is mediated by classism, racism, and sexism.

Given this understanding that schools are reproducing inequalities, what can educators do to challenge the situation? Thomas (1984) says that students can be enabled to develop the knowledge, skills, and attitudes to understand and fight the inequalities and to strategize against discrimination. They can be taught diversity of opportunities, as well as the limitations inherent in society, skills of advocacy, debating, making presentations, and lobbying. Shrewsbury (1987) suggested teaching other skills such as planning, negotiation, evaluation, and decision-making. This type of training leads to leadership development of women students and those of color, and prepares them to engage in social transformation.

Principle Four

The fourth principle discussed by Thomas (1984) is that the fight against racism has to involve everyone. This implies that racism is not just a "black problem," nor is it a "white problem." It is a social problem whose eradication necessitates a social movement. However, Thomas (1984) feels that the leadership will be provided by people of color. She adds that some white people will resist the movement because they stand to lose social power as a result of it. In contrast to anti-racist educational theory, feminist educational theories tend to assume that the students in feminist courses will be predominantly the subjects of the discourse, i.e. women. Male participants are the exception rather than the rule. Courses on anti-racism in contrast tend to be multi-racial, although specialized courses for and by Black women exclusively have also existed (Omolade, 1987).

Progressive educators have to become knowledgeable about the anti-racist and feminist movements and bring that knowledge into the classroom through curricula. That knowledge has to be legitimized and not labelled as "hot-headed radicalism." In order to update themselves in an ongoing way, teachers must engage in active research and community outreach.

Principle Five

Finally, Thomas (1984) concludes by insisting that anti-racism has to be a collective movement rather than an individual, isolated struggle. This means there needs to be a teachers' movement in this regard. Anti-racist education is a political process. The sense of a collective consciousness is also a very important feminist principle in education. Shrewsbury (1987) discusses the notion of "community" as being fundamental in feminist pedagogy in order to enable learners to reach individual and collective goals. Reynolds (1991) talks about the importance of encouraging students to consider the role they and their knowledge can play in fostering social change. Eichler (1990) concludes that the link between women's studies and the women's movement is crucial for the effectiveness of feminist courses and for maximizing learning.

Discourse of Possibility

Simon, Brown, Lee, and Young (1988) in DECODING DISCRIMINATION, develop a pedagogy based on a "discourse of possibility." In this discourse, a teacher begins with the assumption that racism and sexism are not natural to humans and that they can be eliminated. The discourse of possibility has four

basic characteristics. They include (a) developing a critical approach (b) creating new systems and practices (c) legitimizing alternative practices, and (d) including perpetrators as well as the targets of discrimination in a social change process.

The preceding section, reviewed some of the key assumptions and principles that form the basis of an anti-racist, feminist teaching philosophy. The next section discusses the practical aspects - curriculum and classroom practices - that apply these principles.

CURRICULUM

Curriculum has to be global as opposed to ethnocentric (Tator, 1987/88). This means going beyond an "add-on" approach to an "infusion" approach, where different experiences and perspectives are integrated into the core curricula. Some people have referred to this approach as being inclusive. In practical terms, it means that the teacher has to "search out a broad range of literature, poetry, music, art, oral history and biographies (Tator, 1987/88, p. 8)."

The Censorship Debate

Lee (1985) and Taxel (1978/79) present the debate on censorship that exists in any discussion on non-biased curricula, particularly in the area of classics. While there have been instances of removing books from libraries because of bias, they have been few and far between. In cases where it has happened, it was deemed to involve "hate literature". For instance, a book called LITTLE BLACK SAMBO was removed from Board libraries in Toronto (Lee, 1985) and the Regina Public School Board removed three Canadian history textbooks for their racist portrayal of Native Peoples (Tator, 1987/88).

However, Lee (1985) suggests that there is no agreement on censorship and that it is only a partial solution. A more constructive approach is to empower students to develop the skills to detect bias in learning materials for themselves. This is also congruent with developing critical skills, which is a key principle in anti-racist and feminist education. Not only should books be subjected to critique but also films, course descriptions, newspapers, student experiences, vocabulary and language (Lee, 1985).

The Hidden Curriculum

Tator (1987/88) emphasized the importance of subjecting the "hidden curricula" to scrutiny, including such

things as the "school calendar, celebrations, food services, athletics, assemblies, concerts, bulletin boards, hallway displays..." (Tator,1987/88, p. 9). The Ministry of Education (1980) in Ontario published a comprehensive listing of questions for detecting bias in such materials. Again, enabling students to detect bias for themselves develops their independence from teachers and their competence as change agents.

Beyond analyzing curricula for bias, Lee (1985) writes: "In order to make effective use of material which may be biased, you must assess not only the material, but also yourself, your students, and your teaching situations" (p.44).

This quotation reflects a holistic understanding of the teaching processes as well as the larger classroom experiences (including interactions with other students) which are a part of it. Lee (1985) encourages teachers to ask these questions in their efforts to assess the overall curricula: br;.sk 1;.in 10 1. How do I feel about discussing the issue of racism? 2. What do I say if students begin to make racist comments? 3. To what extent have the students' life experiences prepared them for discussing this material? 4. What other material on this issue have the students studied? 5. Are there activities taking place in the school which will facilitate the examination of issues in the material, e.g. special assemblies, guest speakers, Black History Month, focus on the Holocaust? (p.44)

Thus, curricula is not limited to formal textual materials, but also include interactions, activities and environmental factors, which contribute to the climate of the school.

Curriculum Bias in All Disciplines

People often associate bias with literature or social science subjects only. This is an error since bias exists in all curricula. Taxel (1978/79) says: "we must view curricula materials (and organization) not as a mere collection of neutral artifacts but rather as 'value governed selections from a much wider universe of possible knowledge and collection principles'"(p.72).

Tator (1987/88) talks about ways anti-bias approaches can be incorporated even into seemingly objective subjects as math. She argues that the contributions of people of color to the development of math can be highlighted in order to counter the notion that only Western civilization has had a role in this discipline.

She also suggests including issues of discrimination in the study of statistics and graphs.

In the same vein, science and geography can also incorporate anti-bias curricula by examining the concepts of race and gender, their alleged links with intelligence, and issues related to disease, healthcare, and food. An excellent contribution to this area is the book ANTI-RACIST SCIENCE TEACHING (Gill & Levidow, 1987), produced by anti-racist advisory teachers of ILEA (Inner London Education Authority). Case studies are presented on sickle cell anaemia, nutrition and hunger, the Bhopal disaster, and the labelling of students by means of biased assessment tools.

Creating New Curricula

The collective work by teachers to develop anti-bias curricula is a concept which is encouraged by Sarup (1986). The development of ANTI-RACIST SCIENCE TEACHING involved a collaborative process of teachers' sharing classroom materials and experiences and presenting papers at conferences. Such a process is happening in several parts of Canada such as Toronto, British Columbia (Kuehn, 1991), Alberta, and Saskatchewan. When the Gulf War broke out, the British Columbia Teachers' Federation developed a 108 page curricula unit on the background to the situation in the Middle East within 10 days. A group of teachers and university faculty in association with the social studies teachers group and the Peace and Global Education group were responsible for pulling this unit together. The unit was used across Canada. Anti-racist and feminist curricula development may become an extension of the regular teaching responsibility simply as an effort to provide materials which deconstruct traditional biases.

Listening To Marginalized Voices

Anti-racist and feminist teaching involves a process of empowering, giving voice to, and listening to women and people of color. This principle can be included in the process of curricula development. The case of the Baffin Island Writers' Project is an excellent illustration (McAuley, 1991). Recognized authors have visited the Baffin, conducted workshops, and met community members to develop the writing, editing and publishing skills of local writers. The project is monitored by an Inuit Advisory Board.

The project has produced a number of by-products: (a) a bilingual Inuktitut/English literary magazine, (b) a

number of other publications which include contributions from both young Inuit students and community elders, and (c) participant application of desktop publication technology, facilitated by donations from Apple Canada Education Foundation.

The Baffin Island project also highlighted the need to provide support and extra training (in this case literacy and computer training) to learners who have historically been excluded from such education. Omolade (1987) has talked about the need for similar programs to develop writing and literacy skills of Black women whom she taught. Such programs are absolutely essential in the process of empowering learners, particularly those who have been in the margins of academia.

On a smaller scale, Toronto's Flemington Public School, known for its anti-racist innovations (Madge Logan, personal communication, January 6, 1991), regularly invites parents of students to come in as guest speakers and talk about their work. This validates their experiences and knowledge base as well as providing students with positive role models from their own communities.

On a theoretical level, these cases illustrate a reversal of the stripping of women and people of color from "cultural capital" (Taxel, 1978/79). What allows a group to assert its knowledge as "knowledge for all" in the form of official curriculum is political and economic power in society at large. The reason why marginalized groups have not been involved in the production of official knowledge and why their knowledge has often been dismissed is their lack of power in society. Anti-racist and feminist teaching seeks to end this injustice.

Classroom Practices

Experiential Teaching

In anti-racist and feminist teaching, the experiences of students become central in the teaching process. The best results are obtained when students can work together on collaborative projects involving opportunities for discussion. Some have called this a "student-centered" approach, where experiences around race, class and gender are points of departure.

Acknowledging Differences

We have to get away from the axiom "I see all my students in the same way" or "I don't see my students

as black, white, purple, or green". Indeed, individuals have social identities that have been formed by their location in gender, race, ethnic, class, and a myriad of other hierarchies. These identities affect the learning and teaching process.

Arnold, Burke, James, Martin, and Thomas (1991) "spiral model" begins from the experience of students. They reflect on their experiences to identify patterns in them. Next, the teacher or educator builds on the experiences with the addition of new information and theoretical underpinnings. This is followed by allowing participants to practice their skills in strategizing and planning for action. Finally, they have a chance to actually engage in action.

This model integrates several principles of anti-racist and feminist teaching. It values the experiences and knowledge of the participants and breaks away from the model of the teacher being the "expert." The educator and participants relate as equals, teaching and learning from each other through a process of dialogue, rather than a lecture. At the same time, it does not render the teacher/educator invisible, a trap that some feminists have written about (Gardner, Dean & McKaig, 1989). The teacher takes on a variety of roles as facilitator, resource person, synthesizer or someone to resolve conflicts. The spiral model also allows participants to work towards making changes. It brings into unity theory and practice, action and reflection.

Variety in the Classroom

If a variety of activities are included in classrooms, there is potential for reaching people with varied learning styles. For example, women have argued that they learn in different ways than men do simply because of their different social experiences. Similarly, people from various cultures learn differently.

A rich body of curricula materials exist on such activities as power plays (Godfrey, 1986), role plays, drawings, paintings, video, film, poster making, sculpturing, etc. (Arnold & Burke, 1983). These can be utilized by educators to plan their class activities. Besides being more inclusive of people with varying learning styles, these creative activities are also fun and energizing, elements which become critical in dealing with the serious topics of racism and sexism.

A powerful critique of experiential education as an end in itself has been advanced by Bannerjee, Carty, Delhi, and Heald (1991). They say that the purpose of describing our experiences is to connect with others'

experiences and then contextualize those experiences within transhistorical realities, such as imperialism, colonialism, gender, and race. Not to make these crucial links is to fall into the trap of subjective idealism. They speak against turning classes into therapy sessions.

Non-threatening Environment

A requirement of the experiential and dialogue format of education requires that the classroom be a non-threatening environment in which people can express emotions and feelings in safety and with sensitivity. Educators have to model such behavior by sharing experiences themselves, as well as by examining, identifying and resolving personal assumptions, stereotypes, prejudices, and feelings.

In generating a non-threatening classroom environment, it is useful to remember feminist principles of empowerment. Shrewsbury (1987) says that empowerment is energy, capacity and potential "to act, to move, to change conditions, for the benefit of the whole population" (p.8). It does not represent power to dominate others. This means that empowerment does not merely lead to a change in leadership, leaving the power structures intact, but involves dismantling the power structures themselves.

The response to "differences" in the classroom in an appropriate way is a crucial component of encouraging communication in the classroom (Gardner, Dean & McKaig, 1989). Different experiences and perspectives must be encouraged and acknowledged as positive contributions to classroom discussions.

Constructive Confrontation

Feminist educators have developed ideas on how to confront and disagree without lashing out. Schniedewind (1987), for example, talks about developing skills in giving constructive feedback, taking into account the needs of both parties. Shrewsbury (1987) emphasizes the need to combine critical thinking with respect for others. The following are some suggestions made by Arnold, Burke, James, Martin, and Thomas (1991):

1. Talk in the first person
2. Be specific
3. Challenge the idea or action, not the person
4. Mention the positive along with the negative
5. Ask questions to clarify (p. 130)

Other strategies on challenging, confronting and

dealing with conflict have also been developed as these invariably emerge in any discussion on racism and sexism.

The Teaching Staff

Overall, the educator has a very key role in facilitating anti-racist and feminist education. A variety of attitudes, skills, and information are required in order to fulfill this role effectively, raising the need for professional development and in-service training for teachers. Resources and curricula guides are also needed in order to develop new materials for the classroom. Moreover, teachers' colleges should include anti-racist and feminist approaches so that graduates are able to deal with racist and sexist incidents and also to teach students how to deal with them. Lee (1985) has addressed the need for teacher training and development throughout her discussion of anti-racist education. She provides a rich array of activities that could be implemented on teachers' professional development days.

In order to achieve education equity for students, employment equity for teachers has to be implemented also. Madge Logan (personal communication, Jan. 6, 1991) emphasized that the identity of the teacher is an important component of the curriculum, supporting a relational notion of knowledge production. Sarup (1986) also emphasizes the need for employment equity in promoting antiracist education.

So far this paper focussed on classroom practices and curriculum issues in developing an anti-racist, feminist approach in education. However, the classroom is an integral part of a large, complex institution, i.e. the university. The latter plays a very important role in creating a climate for critical education. The next section, identifies some strategies that the university could consider in fulfilling this role.

INSTITUTIONAL STRATEGIES

The strategies in this section touch on the following issues:

1. Faculty
2. Curriculum
3. Resources and Support for Faculty
4. Access and Retention of Students

5. Climate

6. Financial Support

Faculty

First, employment equity for people of color (along with women) has to be a top priority for colleges, particularly at departmental levels, so that faculty and staff are more representative of the student body. In the event of no new faculty hirings, creative ways in which people from communities of color and women can be integrated into teaching programs must be explored.

Curriculum

Second, an effort has to be made to integrate critical approaches not just in anti-racist or feminist courses but in all courses. Perhaps a generic course on gender, race, and class could be designed for all students. Such a course has been designed at the University of Berkeley and is being considered by other American universities also.

Resources and support for Faculty

Third, a resource group should be initiated of faculty who are who are interested in developing ideas in critical teaching methods in general, in anti-racist, feminist teaching in particular.

Access and Retention of Students

Fourth, bridging programs should be replicated in all departments in order to create access for marginalized communities. Support services should also be strengthened in order to promote retention. Such services as cross culturally sensitive and feminist counselling, multilingual information services, writing labs, tutoring and mentoring programs as well as scholarships and bursaries could be made available to students. Outreach programs for academic programs which are focused around feminist and anti-racist issues are essential in building links with marginalized communities and to integrate community concerns in the curricula.

Climate

Fifth, universities need to ensure safe campuses and a less alienating environment in order to promote a sense of belonging in classrooms. The chilly climate in academia could be reduced by making sure that bulletin boards, notices, artwork, and interior decorations

create an environment which is free from harassment and one in which women and men from diverse ethnic, racial, and class backgrounds feel more welcome.

Financial Support

Finally, in order to implement the objectives mentioned above, it has to be ensured that financial support will exist despite the current atmosphere of cutbacks and downsizing.

SUMMARY

Both anti-racist and feminist education have developed as an alternative to the traditional banking model of education (Freire, 1988). Feminist and anti-racist educators have argued that the assumptions and strategies of traditional educators have marginalized those people who hold minimal social power, such as women, people of color, and immigrants. Therefore, anti-racist, feminist education falls in the tradition of "critical pedagogy" as advanced by Paulo Freire (1988). However, Freire's ideas have been further critiqued and developed by anti-racist, feminist educators.

The following list summaries anti-racist, feminist precepts for practice.

1. Develop a critical perspective among students

2. Identify discriminatory practices and replace them with bias free practices

3. Develop the skills of giving and receiving constructive feedback

4. Make all curricula inclusive of the experiences of marginalized groups.

5. Develop student skills in identifying bias in curricula

6. Include within curricula both the formal learning materials as well as the interactions in the larger learning environment

7. Create new curricula in collaboration with other educators

8. Include marginalized voices in the curricula

9. Utilize experiential activities in teaching

10. Combine theory and practice

11. Use a variety of activities in teaching

12. Nurture a non-threatening environment in the classroom in which open communication can take place.

13. Let "differences" be articulated and heard in the classroom, rather than be silenced.

14. Confront people without silencing them.

Finally, this article recommended institutional changes which Universities can make in order to provide the context in which critical educational approaches can be implemented.

IMPLICATIONS

Concrete case studies, such as the ones documented by Gardner, Dean, and McKaig (1989) can help one to understand the complexity of engaging in anti-racist, feminist pedagogies. The struggles, triumphs, and resistance to such efforts can teach new lessons in the field of critical adult education. The barriers to engaging in alternative educational approaches within traditional institutions of learning are immense, and these barriers need to be analysed and eliminated.

Anti-racist, feminist educators attempt to empower students so that they can take a more active role in their own learning process. What happens if the teacher is a woman of color and did not have a lot of "traditional authority" to begin with? Some educators (Hoodfar, 1992) have begun to address this question based on their own teaching experiences. Existing literature tends to assume that teachers/educators are a homogenous mass. Therefore, the writings reflect the experience of teachers of the dominant race and sex, albeit with a feminist and/or anti-racist perspective. The identity of the teacher is an important issue to focus on in the implementation of alternative pedagogies.

Similarly, the identity of students is important to consider in the practice of alternative methodologies in education. Universities tend to be the bastion of privileged groups and classes in society. How can students from such sectors be made to acknowledge and counteract their own, as well as society's, racist, sexist, and classist assumptions and practices?

Finally, how realistic is it to eliminate bias completely, if we are simultaneously arguing that

individuals represent a particular vantage point which is conditioned by their location within class, race, gender and other hierarchies? These and other related questions still need to be addressed.

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